**STRENGTHENING THE EFFECTIVENESS OF
AID DELIVERY IN TEACHER EDUCATION:
A FIJI CASE STUDY**

by

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Abstract

Strengthening the Effectiveness of Aid Delivery in Teacher Education: A Fiji Case Study

As a result of increasing development challenges and higher aid allocations to the Pacific, questions of aid effectiveness have become increasingly important. Efforts to professionalise aid delivery tools have been accompanied by debates over whether delivery tools are effective and compatible with more democratic and empowering relationships with beneficiaries. My research examines the effectiveness of international aid to teacher development, using the AusAID funded projects at Lautoka Teachers' College as a case study and the Fiji College of Advanced Education as background study. The conditions governing aid delivery mechanisms are explored, including logical frameworks, participatory processes, and financial probity. These conditions have been drawn from the '*Paris Declaration of Aid Effectiveness*' and each is considered to be critical if aid effectiveness is to be enhanced and the investment sustained.

Based on participatory research methodology, carried out through '*talanoa sessions*', semi-structured interviews, and analysis of programme documents, the study explored the extent to which aid programmes and management practices are constrained by donor conditions, succeed in meeting their stated aims, and what sort of unintended consequences are generated. Further, the research identified how aid can best improve future aid to the Fiji education system through its delivery, impact and sustainability for national development, as laid out in the *Pacific Principles of Aid Effectiveness*. The study also highlights the growing convergence between the 'aid donors' interests' and 'aid recipients' needs'. The debate on this relationship is necessary to reinvigorate thinking on the effectiveness of aid delivery for Fiji. The study draws up a practical framework, an *aid bure* designed as a heuristic device to assess the effectiveness of aid delivery for Fiji. The model may also be relevant to the wider Pacific context, and contribute to the global quest for a concrete guide to best practice which above all will continue to foster more sensitive, effective and enduring links between recipient countries and international aid donors.

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28“*Dou lako mai vei au kemudou vakayadua sa oca ka colata na i colacola bibi, ia kau na vakacegui kemudou.*

28"Come to me, all you who are weary and burdened, and
I will give you rest.

29*Vakataqara vei kemududou na noqu i vua ka vuli vei au, sa yalomalua ka yalo malumulumu dou na kunea kina na vakacewgu ni yalomudou.*

29Take my yoke upon you and learn from me, for I am
gentle and humble in heart, and you will find rest for
your souls.

30*Ni sa rawarawa na noqu i vua, ka mamada na noqu i colacola”.*

11: 28-30.

30For my yoke is easy and my burden is light."

Matthew 11: 28-30.

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Abbreviation and acronyms

AAA	Accra Agenda for Action
APTC	Australia-Pacific Technical College
AusAID	Australian Agency for International Development
BACC	Budget and Aid Coordinating Committee
Bed	Bachelors of Education
BELS	Basic Education and Life Skills
BEMTUP	Basic Education Management and Teacher Education
CAS	Curriculum Advisory Service
CBO	Community Based Organisation
CEO	Chief Executive Officer
CDU	Curriculum Development Unit
CIDA	Canadian International Development Assistance
CUT	Curtin University of Technology
CWCC	Capital Works Coordination Committee
CECE	Certificate in Early Childhood Education
CCTC	Corpus Christi Teacher College
DAC	Development Assistance Committee
DFCU	Development Co-operation and Facilitation Unit
DPE	Diploma of Primary Education
EFA	Education for All
EU	European Union
FATEP	Fiji Australia Teacher Education Project

FC	Fulton College
FCAE	Fiji College of Advanced Education
FESP	Fiji Education Sector Program
FEYE	Fiji Eighth Year Examination (end of Class 8)
FFSE	Fiji Form Seven Examination (end of form 7)
FIE	Fiji Intermediate Examination (end of class 6)
FIEC	Fiji Islands Education Commission
FIT	Fiji Institute of Technology
FMS	Financial Management System
FMIS	Financial Management Information System
FSM	Fiji School of Medicine
FNTC	Fiji National Training Council
FREP	Fiji Rural Education Project
FDI	Foreign Direct Investment
FESP	Fiji Education Sector Program
FNU	Fiji National University
FSLC	Fiji School Leaving Certificate
FTA	Fijian Teachers Association
FTU	Fiji Teachers union
GoA	Government of Australia
GoF	Government of Fiji
GU	Griffith University
GNI	Gross National Income

HLF	Rome High Level Forum
HOS	Heads of School
HRD	Human Resource Development
HRM	Human Resource Management
IAE	International Aid Effectiveness
IOE	Institute of Education
IT	Information Technology
JICA	Japanese International Cooperation Agency
KLA	Key Learning Areas
LDC	Less developed country
LTA	Long Term Advisers
LTC	Lautoka Teachers College
LTCUP	Lautoka Teachers College Upgrade Project
MDG	Millennium Development Goals
MIS	Management Information system
MOE	Ministry of Education
MOF	Ministry of Finance
MoFACHRD	Ministry of Fijian Affairs, Cultural Heritage and Regional Development
M&E	Monitoring and Evaluation
MTCEP	Medium Term Capital Expenditure Programme
NEPAD	New Partnership for African development
NGO	Non Government Organisation

ODA	Overseas Development Assistance
PAR	Participatory Action Research
PICTA	Pacific Island Countries Trade Agreement
PACER	Pacific Agreement on Closer Economic Relations
PDAE	Paris Declaration of Aid Effectiveness
PPAE	Pacific Principles on Aid Effectiveness
PMMG	Project Monitoring and Management Group
PICs	Pacific Island Countries
PDC	Professional Development Committee
PDD	Program Design Document
PEMAC	Physical Education, Music, Art and Craft
PM	Program Manager
PSC	Public Service Commission
PSC	Program Steering Committee
R&D	Research and Development
SEATO	South Asian Treaty Organisation
SEO	Senior Education Officer
SMS	Student Management System
SRG	Subject Reference Groups
STA	Short Term advisers
SWAp	Sector Wide Approach
TD	Technical Director
TA	Technical Assistance

TAG	Technical Advisory Group
TOR	Term of Reference
TA	Technical Assistance
TL	Team Leader
TICAD II	Tokyo International Conference on African Development
TWC	Third World countries
TVET	Technical and Vocational Education and Training
UNESCO	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation
UNMD	United Nations Millennium Declaration
UPS	Uninterrupted Power Supply
USP	University of the South Pacific
VUW	Victoria University of Wellington
WA	Western Australia
WADET	Western Australia Department of Education and Training
WAPPA	Western Australia Primary Principals Association
WASEA	Western Australia Secondary Education Administration
WATD	Western Australia Technical Director
WB	World Bank
WDI	World Development Indicators
WHO	World Health Organisation

Glossary

Explanation of Fijian terms and some other terms as have been conceptualised in this thesis.

<i>bure/ vale</i>	house
<i>dina</i>	truth
<i>fale</i>	Tongan word for house
<i>i vakarau</i>	a way of behaving
<i>na vakarokoroko</i>	showing respect
<i>na veiciqomi</i>	being tolerant and accommodating
<i>na veikauwaitaki</i>	to notice, to take care and to show concern
<i>na veirogorogoci</i>	listening and respecting each other's views
<i>na veivakararamatak i</i>	enlightenment
<i>na veivakaduavatataki</i>	to bring together, conciliate and harmonize
<i>veivakayalovinakataki</i>	creating goodwill all around
<i>veidinadinati</i>	being faithful to a consensus agreement
<i>veisolisoli</i>	to be generous, to give freely of each other
<i>veivosoti</i>	act of forgiveness
<i>vakaqacotaka</i>	make secure, to consolidate
<i>vakanuinui</i>	expressions of best intent
<i>tabu</i>	restriction
<i>talanoa</i>	conversation
<i>veitalanoa</i>	to be engaged in a conversation with others
<i>vanua</i>	land in totality
<i>yaqona</i>	'yaqona' (<i>piper methysticum</i>) refers both to the plant and drink which is made from it by steeping the pulped

fresh roots (or it is powdered and dried equivalent) in an appropriate amount of water which is pounded and drunk in a both formal and informal gathering or any discussion.

whare

Maori word for house

Chapter 1

Thesis Outline

Aid budgets have increased in the 1980s despite the implementation of austerity policies of donor governments since the turn of the decade. It can no longer be analysed solely by purely economic and commercial motives and has become much more complex as it merges with overall objectives of foreign policy
(Yasutomo, D. T, 2004. p. 490)

Introduction

Aid has been put under the spotlight in the last two decades and the world has become much more aware of the challenges of delivering effective aid to developing countries (Coxon and Tolley, 2005; OECD, 1998). In the mid 1990s there was widespread pessimism about the future contribution of aid (Collier and Dollar, 2001:2). This recent attention has thrown into relief the importance of aid management. Effective delivery of aid is problematic, multifaceted and complex. Aid may sometimes be interpreted as a political and strategic tool as well as one for welfare and development. In recent years there has been growing interest in seeing aid agencies demonstrate more effectively the purpose and the value of their intervention (UNDP, 2000; Riddle, 1997). The key issue at stake is the impact of aid delivery. There has been a strong international consensus on a new, coherent way of engaging in development cooperation through the International Aid Effectiveness (IAE) agenda. This issue is particularly pertinent in the Pacific region for effective aid delivery.

While this agenda does not reject older models of aid delivery, it implicitly acknowledges that the old ways are not effective enough to

meet the new challenges. Even though aid flows have increased, the delivery has not been liberated from the political agenda, thus the effectiveness has been compromised. However, there are hopes of new opportunities for working together through unparalleled consensus by donor countries and recipient countries. The changing world view of the IAE is not a fad, but has roots in the improved understanding of the complexity of development and increased use of more analytical approaches to aid delivery over the last 20 years. More generally, donors, recipients, and other stakeholders, including taxpayers, have a collective interest in understanding how to make better use of aid resources and the differences these resources are making to peoples' lives. There is increased awareness of the different forms of aid in the key questions, "What works and for whom?" (UNDP, 2000).

The OECD-Development Assistance Committee (DAC) ¹ (2005) highlighted, through the consensus on aid effectiveness, that aid should be recipient-country owned, aligned, harmonised, and focused on results not inputs. It was also agreed that donors should also use minimal conditions, strengthen accountability and participation, and ensure that their policies are consistent with recipient countries' poverty alleviation strategies.

In the mid 1990s, together with an increased flow of aid, there came widespread pessimism about the future contribution of aid (Collier and Dollar, 2001). Even though aid flows had increased, the effectiveness of its delivery had not. Aid effectiveness in the form of multiple benefits to partner countries, has always been a fundamental argument for increasing aid volume (OECD, 2005). But such

¹ The Development Assistance Committee (DAC, www.oecd.org/dac) is the principal body through which the OECD deals with issues related to co-operation with developing countries.

increases have also brought unintended burdens. The OECD (2005) has identified as a top priority in the development agenda the need to provide and use aid as effectively as possible. One expression of this concern occurred when world leaders, through the UN General Assembly, issued the Millennium Declaration in 2000 setting out the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs), a set of eight priorities for guiding partner countries' development programmes and donor assistance to make a real difference in reducing poverty worldwide (OECD, 2005). Two of these goals are of particular relevance for education: achieve universal primary education, ensuring that all boys and girls complete a full course of primary schooling; and promote gender equality and empower women, eliminating gender disparity in primary and secondary education preferably by 2005, and at all levels by 2015.

This introductory chapter presents personal reflections on, and disquiet about, Overseas Development Assistance (ODA) to education in the South Pacific nation of Fiji and, in particular, aid to teacher training institutions.

Aim of the Study

The overall aim of this research was to develop yardsticks for measuring aid effectiveness from both donor and recipient perspectives. These yardsticks were developed from lessons learnt from the detailed study of the effectiveness of educational aid in two specific teacher training institutions in Fiji. An aid '*bure model*' was proposed as an ideal guide for effective aid delivery in Fiji. This model is flexible enough to be contextually adjusted and translated to serve the needs of other Pacific and developing countries.

Globally, an evolution has been witnessed in the thinking about aid effectiveness and development where donor and developing countries are increasingly aware that development is a complex process dependent upon multiple factors (Gallus, 2004). In the mid 1990s academics and the World Bank, mounted a huge research effort to investigate aid effectiveness and to rethink the practices of donor agencies (Collier and Dollar, 2001). Instead of constructing a condemnation of what has been done in the past, reports provided guidelines for improvements. The research contributed to the new “consensus on aid effectiveness”² based on work done in 1996 when increased attention was given to aid effectiveness through the Development Cooperation Assistance (DAC)³ document, *Shaping the 21st Century*, (Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) 1996). At this time, the World Bank also carried out studies of aid effectiveness which highlighted a “compelling need” for overseas development assistance (Hunt and Morton, 2004). This experience concurred with previous research carried out in the 1980s, at a time when overseas development assistance had not yet been placed under the critical spotlight (DAC, 1996).

² The DAC published an important new document, ‘*Shaping the 21st Century*’, which argued that there was compelling need for development cooperation to help the international community deal with the challenges and opportunities posed by global change. It argued that aid could help build political stability and social cohesion in developing countries, and reduce the risk of war and terrorism. It set out a series of lessons about aid, among them the need to focus on social development, good governance, civil society participation, and sound and stable policy framework (OECD 1996).

³ DAC-Development Assistance Community of the Organisation of Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD). DAC was established in 1961 as a seventeen member committee to provide a forum for donor governments to consult and cooperate with one another on aid policies. Today, DAC is made up of twenty two members: Australia, Austria, Belgium, Canada, Denmark, Finland, France, Ireland, Italy, Germany, Japan, Luxembourg, the Netherlands, New Zealand, Norway, Portugal, Spain, Sweden, Switzerland, the United Kingdom, the United States, and the Commission of European Communities (Hoy, 1998, p. 158).

On March 2, 2005, the *Paris Declaration on Aid Effectiveness*⁴ was enshrined by over one hundred donor and developing countries who agreed in Paris to undertake landmark reforms in the way they conduct aid together (OECD, 2006). These reforms are critical if aid commitments made during 2005 are to help partner countries meet the Millennium Development Goals by 2015. While some may argue that the Paris Declaration is nothing but good intentions and unlikely to make a difference, chapter three discusses some of the reasons to be confident that improved aid delivery mechanisms will significantly increase the impact of aid in developing countries.

In the Pacific context, Sanga (2005a) proposed ways to rethink aid relationships in Pacific education. Similar research was carried out by the Development Studies Network in 2005. This study identifies how the effectiveness of educational aid can be improved, and thus, the education system of Fiji can be promoted and strengthened. It is also an attempt to examine the relationship between “aid donor interests” and “aid recipient needs”, and through this, to contribute to improving the impact and outcome of educational aid by developing a model that upholds the interests and needs of both parties in terms of aid “effectiveness”.

Overton and Storey (2004) believe that the most important question to answer is, “How can we build effective partnerships between donors and recipients”? This cannot be done in a way that may reinforce unequal donor and recipient relationships. The aim is to empower

⁴ The Paris Declaration of Aid Effectiveness has laid the grounds for the preparation of over 100 donor and developing countries at a High Level Forum in March 2005. The signatories subscribed to some 50 specific commitments to do all aid better and, for the first time, they agree to measure progress with a set of indicators and targets. This moved the aid effectiveness agenda beyond the general consensus reached at the Rome High Level Forum in 2003 to what is now a practical blueprint for donors and partners to implement in a spirit of mutual accountability (OECD, 2005).

recipients and enable them to claim ownership to define their own problems and solutions and maintain independence. The effectiveness of such relationships addresses the nexus of issues that most vex the aid recipients (Fox, 2004). The need for aid effectiveness will also address the argument here that a shift must take place under which donor countries will align their assistance with recipient countries' national strategic development plans, rather than the current arrangement under which the recipient country adheres to the pressure of the donors' interests and motives (refer to the Conceptual Framework in Fig 2).

The study also sets out new strategies based on the concept of ownership and partnership in development, and is in conformity with the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs). These goals have a strong anti-poverty and social development emphasis (Hunt and Morton, 2004). The goals are relevant to developing countries when they prioritise education aid to expedite or enhance national progress.

Furthermore, the research identifies the need to propose a framework and a model for best practice of aid delivery. This framework is needed so that the impact of aid will improve the sustainability of the Fiji educational system. The study will attempt to make a significant contribution to Fiji and Pacific knowledge in developing an appropriate and effective aid framework for assessing the effectiveness of aid delivery.

A model is proposed which will define the critical path to increased aid effectiveness and bring the outcomes and operational issues of aid delivery mechanisms to the attention of policy makers and educators. This study will contribute to the global quest for best practice in strengthening effective aid delivery, and specifically effective aid

delivery in teacher education. The lessons learnt from the study can be a useful measuring tool for the implementation of future aid to teacher training institutions. In turn, this will contribute to a shift from Fiji's current imposed dependence on aid, to more proactive measures determining effective aid delivery in the (Fiji) education system. Such improvement through "better aid" will improve basic education and will enhance capacity building among teachers as agents of change. Effective aid is essential to accelerate the achievement of the MDGs.

Personal Interest in Aid Delivery

Many developing countries and Pacific islands have benefited through development aid assistance through numerous types of projects but some have had little impact or even harmful consequences (Schoeffel, 1985; Veitayaki, 2000). As a teacher educator, my marginal participation in the two aid projects studied in this thesis - largely as an observer - motivated my interest in analysing the processes of aid delivery at the institutional level. In addition, I was intrigued by the robust debate regarding the mechanics of aid processes in the wake of the 2003 conference on *Re-thinking Educational Aid in the Pacific*. The conference was NZAID-funded, and was coordinated by Victoria University of Wellington (VUW) in conjunction with the Institute of Education (IOE) of the University of the South Pacific (USP). This three-day conference was held at the Macambo Hotel in Nadi, Fiji, between 20 - 22 October, 2003 and aimed to encourage Pacific stakeholders to begin a process of scrutiny, debate, and discussion of aid, and to explore possible alternative directions for the future. The conference was attended by government officials, donor agencies, development experts, educators, teachers, graduates, students, and

some aid workers from around the Pacific. It was a valuable opportunity to share experiences and to expand our knowledge of aid issues, which had the potential to help increase aid effectiveness.

At the end of the conference, several significant themes emerged from a summary of the proceedings. Though these themes are subject to debate, they stimulated my interest. The themes of particular interest to me in the summary were:

- i. There is an increasing demand for education from primary to tertiary level including a need for appropriate curriculum and the promotion of technical education. There is a great demand for a shift away from the academic based education system that reflects the old colonial model.
- ii. Aid and aid donor agencies need to work from a Pacific perspective and take a more collaborative approach and place greater emphasis on the recognition of local culture and traditions.
- iii. To increase local participation there should be more local consultants in place of foreign counterparts. The donor agencies need to have a closer relationship with the Ministry of Education to achieve more of the sector wide approach.

(Contway 2003, p. 2)

My passion for studying the effectiveness of aid delivery led me to explore aid delivery mechanisms. According to Cassen (1986) there are two different yet overlapping reasons to understand the effectiveness of aid:

Firstly for the far reaching judgment about how worthwhile aid is; as the government, the public, and aid agencies need to know whether and how aid succeeds and therefore deserves support and; secondly if justified, how this aid can be better managed to ensure the effective delivery of assistance that can improve teacher training institutions.

(Cassen, 1993, p10)

According to Gounder (1995), the DAC of the OECD adopted the *Recommendations of Financial Terms and Conditions* in 1969 and defined aid as;

Overseas Development Assistance that flows to developing countries and multilateral institutions provided by official agencies, including state and local governments, or by their executive agencies, each transaction of which meets the following test:

- a. It is administered with the promotion of economic development and welfare of developing countries as its main objective, and
- b. It is concessional in character and contains a grant element if at least 25 per cent.

(OECD, 1985, p 171)

This study focuses on the “donors’ interests” and “recipients’ needs” relationship which has dominated the analysis of the motivation to understand the mechanisms of Overseas Development Assistance (ODA). Tsoutsoplades (1991) noted:

The donor interests model examines the degree to which geographical allocation of a donor’s aid flow, the pattern dictated by ‘particularistic’ motives while the recipient needs model examines the degree to which it conforms to the ‘universal’ aid allocation criteria as these relates to the developmental requirements of the recipients.

(Tsoutsoplades, 1991, p 648)

Aid donors and recipients need to create a situation where they complement each other. Aid should focus on development assistance, humanitarian assistance, and emergency relief, including food aid (Gounder, 1995). This is particularly important for the recipient country as a means of enhancing its development and making a difference to people's lives. The donor/recipient relationship is explained in detail in Chapter 3 which discusses the theoretical perspective of the study which is underpinned by the "power relation theory"⁵. However Wendt (2003; CIDA, 2006a) highlighted the importance of genuine partnership with both parties of the project having the opportunity to contribute their thoughts and opinions on what is necessary if the local ownership of an aid project is going to be strong.

Significance of the study

This study is an extension of work commenced by former researchers such as Puamau⁶ (2005a). The knowledge gained from this study will contribute to the body of knowledge on the effectiveness of the delivery of educational aid, and provide insights for teacher training institutions. The knowledge will be able to inform and guide those involved in educational aid programmes, particularly educational policy and human resource planning. These areas are particularly relevant in today's knowledge-based, global economy as education lays the groundwork as never before for poverty reduction, sustained

⁵ The theoretical perspective which gauges how power is related or exercised between two parties

⁶ Mrs Pricilla Puamau was a former Principal at Fiji College of Advanced Education, a government junior secondary teacher training institution. Currently she is Education Advisor for the Pacific Regional Initiative for Delivery of Basic Education (PRIDE).

economic growth, and good governance (CIDA, 2007). The findings will inform policy makers and educators at various levels of thinking and operation. It will impact on aid delivery policies in education. This is especially important since aid can be a complex mixture of altruistic and self-interested behaviour (Gounder, 1995). The study will make a significant contribution to the knowledge of Fiji and Pacific policy makers in relation to effective educational aid delivery issues such as access and equity, community support, life skills, educational sustainability, and curriculum relevancy. This will contribute to the achievement of quality education for all children at primary and early childhood levels in Fiji (LTCUP/PDD 2004). This study will provide insights to guide aid campaigners in the improvement of aid effectiveness in teacher training in developing countries, particularly in the Pacific. It will broaden the researcher's own knowledge and hopefully provide a prism through which insights may be gained into how education aid can contribute more to national development programmes in Fiji.

The research has sought to identify a useful set of yardsticks by which to measure aid effectiveness. It has sought to do so by drawing on some of the benchmarks raised in the Pacific Principles of Aid Effectiveness (Appendix I). These principles are derived from the Paris Declaration on Aid Effectiveness (PDAE) (Appendix II) which has mobilised the international community to support partner countries in order to meet the MDGs and halve global poverty by 2015 (OECD DAC, 2005). The PDAE guidelines promise to enhance aid delivery and increase the impact on development so that recipient countries can build their capacity to more successfully manage their own projects. This will be discussed in detail in Chapter 3.

This research uses the “power relation theory” as a model which acknowledges both the aid donors’ interests and aid recipients’ needs and also explores the relationship between them. The outcome of the study will provide an appropriate conceptual framework for assessing the effectiveness of aid delivery in Fiji which shares a lot of characteristics with other Pacific Island Countries (PICs).

There is reasonable literature on aid in the Pacific at both a national level and a regional level. For example, *Re-Thinking Aid Relationships in Pacific Education* (Sanga, et al., 2005d) is the combined effort of thirty scholars, who critically analyse how the relationships between donors and Pacific country recipients affect education in the Pacific. The focus of the collection is largely at a national level and lacks primary studies conducted at an institutional level. My contribution is at the institutional level and the absence of other studies of this nature is what motivated my interest to pursue this research.

From the aid recipients’ perspective, this study will assist them by delineating what a genuine engagement is all about, including how educational aid delivery strategies can best achieve their objectives and optimise the benefits for recipient nations. This assumes that there will be more educational aid in the foreseeable future and it is hoped that my observations will promote improved educational directions for Fiji and other Pacific Island countries (PICs). More effective aid delivery will only be achieved if strategies are improved and good aid practices are implemented following the steps laid down by the DAC under which donors committed themselves to a common set of principles and concrete activities in the implementation of aid delivery.

Research Questions

The principal research questions that this study addresses are:

- I. To what extent did the two AusAID programmes and management practices reviewed here arise out of donor interests and/or recipient needs, succeed in their stated aims, and generate unintended consequences?
- II. What should be the critical indicators or yardsticks for measurement of the effectiveness of educational aid delivery in teacher education in Fiji?
- III. What conceptual framework for aid delivery process should be implemented to promote and strengthen the operation of effective delivery mechanisms in Fiji and Pacific Island Countries?

Overall Goal

The overall goal of the research is to make a contribution to both the practical and the theoretical understandings of effective delivery of aid to teacher education. This study centres on case studies of Fiji education aid projects (LTCUP) and Fiji Australia Teacher Education Project (FATEP). Lessons will be drawn from an analysis of these projects and an analysis of existing literature. It is the incorporation of both the regional/global and the local perspectives that will contribute to the design of a conceptual framework which will provide an integrated model for effective aid delivery principally designed to enhance the impact of effective aid delivery mechanisms on the Fiji education system.

Objectives

Teachers are central to the quality of the education schools systems deliver to the Pacific region (Puamau, 2007). The main objectives of the research are to draw lessons from the analysis of two projects providing aid to teacher education, and to assess the application of the global/regional guideline documents in the implementation of these projects in order to identify contextually relevant yardsticks to be used as measures for effective aid delivery. Using these yardsticks, the next objective was to design a conceptual framework that is relevant for strengthening the effectiveness of future educational aid projects to teacher education in Fiji and elsewhere. It is out of this conceptual framework that a model is to be developed that will guide aid delivery for Fiji and other countries within the Pacific context. This model will contribute to the global quest for best practice and more enduring links between recipient countries and international aid donors.

The two teacher education aid projects studied in the research are:

1. Fiji–Australia Teacher Education Project (FATEP) at the Fiji College of Advanced Education (FCAE 1992 - 1995).
2. Lautoka Teachers College Upgrading Project (LTCUP) at the Lautoka Teachers College (LTC 2002-2006) had a European Union component which was responsible for the capital project – (Buildings at LTC 2002-2006).

The two teacher training college upgrades were both AusAID funded and designed prior to the Paris Declaration. However the LTCUP had an EU component which was responsible for the capital infrastructure. The study draws background information of the aid delivery strategies and identifies whether some lessons learnt from the

FATEP at FCAE project which was implemented in the early 1990s were translated into the later LTCUP project. The aid delivery policies of the EU capital project are also studied because of the increasing number of aid projects that the Fiji Education Sector Program (FESP)⁷ has been involved in lately.

The research objectives are addressed by a series of research question statements followed by research sub-questions which define outcomes related to the principal research questions:

- i. To evaluate the AusAID funded projects implemented at the Fiji College of Advanced Education (FCAE) over the period of 1991-1994, and at the Lautoka Teachers Training (LTC) College over the period of 2001-2006.
- What were the programmes and management practices employed in the FATEP and LTCUP initiatives?
 - To what extent did they arise out of donor interests or recipient need? To what extent have the interests and the needs of both the donors and the recipients been addressed?
 - Have the FATEP and LTCUP initiatives succeeded in their stated aims?
 - What were the logical frameworks of the FATEP and LTCUP initiatives? How was each project's logical framework interpreted to achieve the goals and objectives of the project?
 - To what extent have the FATEP and LTCUP initiatives generated unintended consequences?

⁷ The FESP is an aid programme funded by the EU and AusAID

- Identify the kinds of arrangements governments have put in place to lead the country-level processes and execute the necessary activities related to realising the commitments and agreements made in Paris and the benchmarks on aid effectiveness set by the OECD.
- What aid policy guidelines and actionable steps need to be put in place to follow up activities in the implementation and monitoring phases of the projects?
- In comparing the two initiatives, had lessons been learned from the earlier (FATEP) that were applied to the later (LTCUP) initiative? How can the lessons used from FATEP be used to improve future aid delivery to teacher education?
- Overall, what are the main lessons that can be learnt about the delivery of educational aid projects in Fiji?

ii. To establish tools or yardsticks for measuring the effectiveness of educational aid delivery which are consistent with the *aid bure* model.

- What measures/indicators have been put forward internationally/regionally to be used in determining the effectiveness of aid delivery?
- How appropriate are these international measures/indicators for the local Fiji aid situation?
- What yardsticks could be used to address the specific lessons learnt from the system analysis of the FATEP and LTCUP projects?

iii. To incorporate the yardsticks into a conceptual framework and holistic model to ensure a shared

balance of power and to strengthen mutual capacity building where donors genuinely address the needs of the recipient countries.

- How should the yardsticks be integrated into a conceptual framework to guide the effective delivery of future teacher education aid projects in Fiji?
- What model should be used to guide the delivery of aid in general within Fiji and the Pacific region?

Key Assumptions

It is important that the parameters that guide this research, the assumptions outlined below, are understood at the outset. The following assumptions guide this research:

1. Improved educational aid policies and practices can enhance aid delivery in Fiji.
2. Participants in projects can contribute valuable insights into how teacher education aid can best be conducted in a manner that will promote quality education for sustainable development in nation building.
3. If a more effective mechanism of educational aid delivery is to be used in Fiji there is a need for projects to be better conceptualised.
4. The methodology and conceptualisation developed in the research will provide insightful data that will lead to improvements in aid effectiveness in Fiji.

5. The conceptualisation and methods used in this study will affirm the need to look at the Pacific from a distinctively Pacific point of view⁸.
6. The Ministry of Education will welcome the research results as beneficial and give comprehensive support to the conceptual framework. The framework will be used as a guide to assess and measure the effectiveness of future educational aid.

The Structure of the Thesis

This thesis is structured into nine chapters.

Chapter 1: This is an introductory chapter which introduces and outlines the conception of the research. It highlights the key research questions and the goals which have informed the research. The introductory chapter explains the significant contributions that this research makes to the body of knowledge on the effectiveness of aid as measured by the impact on two teacher training institutions in Fiji.

Chapter 2: The Research Methodology chapter outlines and provides justifications for the research method used in the study. It elaborates on the significance and the credibility of qualitative research methodology and discusses the appropriateness of participatory action research (PAR) using the *talanoa* approach as a tool, which is culturally appropriate methodology from an indigenous researcher's perspective. This epistemology provides the philosophical grounding which determines what kind of knowledge is relevant and legitimate in relation to this study. The chapter is centred on the aid delivery mechanisms proposed in the *Four-Part Aid Effectiveness Agenda* of

⁸ Conceptualisations and use of Pacific based research tools for valuable and contextual data collection methodology.

the Canadian International Development Agency (CIDA) (2007). The analysis will involve a measure of both the desired and undesired outcomes of the project, which will then be translated into the yardsticks that will be used to measure aid effectiveness. The conceptual framework is linked to the overall impact and mechanisms for measuring aid effectiveness.

The choice of constructivism (Crotty, 1998) as a theory of knowledge is embedded in my theoretical perspective. This epistemology provides the philosophical ground on which to determine whether the information is both adequate and legitimate.

Chapter 3: This section comprises the first of two relevant literature review chapters, with the second part continuing in Chapter 4. Gaps are identified in available approaches and the approaches to aid effectiveness are evaluated as outlined in both the *Pacific Principles on Aid Effectiveness* (Figure 1) (Pacific Island Forum, 2007) and in the *Paris Declaration of Aid Effectiveness* (PDAE). The challenges of meeting MDGs for poverty reduction are referred to.

Chapter 4: The second part of the literature review addresses the general literature on aid in the Pacific with specific emphasis on Fiji. This chapter highlights how aid has contributed to basic education objectives in reference to the anticipated achievement of MDGs, and how effective aid delivery contributes to teacher education development. Educational aid impacts directly on the capacity of teachers to deliver better educational outcomes through improved teaching and learning strategies. My interest in aligning of more effective aid delivery mechanism to education with local practices which are consistent with the government policy to promote better

quality education and create an environment that will empower people by building their human resource capabilities.

Chapter 5: This chapter outlines background information of the Fiji Australian Teacher Education Project (FATEP) in the Fiji College of Advanced Education (FCAE) which was implemented in the early nineties (1992-1995). It was one of the first AusAID development projects to teacher education in the early 1990s and the chapter reviews some outstanding issues in aid relationships as background information. The chapter also draw on some background information of the BEMTUP, an AusAID funded initiative which was implemented in LTC in the mid 1990s. It highlights how donor self-interest negated the optimum use of a substantial amount of aid funding which was used to pay exorbitant foreign consultants' fees and buy expensive technical equipment from Australia. It is revealed that this is not an uncommon occurrence, and that the process of "tied aid" ultimately results in a "boomerang" effect that fails to optimise the positive impact of AusAID funding on Fiji.

Chapter 6: This chapter reviews the case study of the Lautoka Teachers' College Upgrade Project (LTCUP) and investigates whether optimum mechanisms of effective aid delivery were followed. The chapter highlights weaknesses in the implementation and the management of LTCUP with special emphasis on the capital infrastructure provided by the EU. The chapter highlights how the lack of technical skills of local staff combined with limited and shallow cultural understanding and lack of sensitivity on the part of overseas consultants resulted in avoidable difficulties. Some improvements in the aid delivery practices are noted which indicate that some lessons had been learnt from educational aid projects carried out in the 1990s.

Chapter 7: This chapter analyses the profile of the case studies and the respondents who participated in the research. A field data analysis is conducted and builds an outline of ways to strengthen the effectiveness of aid delivery situations that prevailed before, during and after the projects. The critical analysis highlights the strengths and weaknesses of what the projects delivered. The analysis highlights the critical voices of those engaged directly and indirectly in the projects. The findings are then evaluated within the terms laid down in the conceptual framework, and guidelines for the direction of future aid delivery within teacher education are presented.

Chapter 8: This chapter comprises the second part of the analysis and focuses on the measurement of effective aid delivery. This section uses the four yardsticks presented in the conceptual framework to measure the overall impact: effectiveness, efficiency, sustainability, and responsiveness of the research.

Chapter 9: This concluding chapter summarises the main arguments, and discusses the main findings and recommendations. It provides a general, overall assessment of the projects including the yardsticks and the proposed *aid bure* model and the role they should play in a template of best practices. I also suggest some important issues that require further research.

Chapter Two

Research Methodology: The *talanoa* approach

Many arrows, loosed several ways.
Fly to one mark... William Shakespeare, Henry V
(Crotty, 1998, p1)

Introduction

The previous chapter introduced and outlined the goals and objectives that served to focus and raise the principal research question. It further positioned the study and its likely contribution to the body of knowledge relating to aid effectiveness. In this chapter I distinguish between the methodology and methods used by adopting Silverman's (2000) approach in which he asserts that methodology is the blueprint for studying any phenomena for achieving the goals of research, while the methods are the specific preferred research techniques applied to the job. The conceptual framework (methodology) for this research is underpinned by the use of participatory action research (PAR) and the tools or methods are informed by the use of the *talanoa*⁹ approach (Vaioleti, 2003, 2006). The choice of the *talanoa* sessions as a means of gathering information was considered to be the most appropriate, culturally informed way of gathering information. The case study was built into my assumption that by following up on my experience as a participant-observer, I stood to learn a great deal from the research at both a personal and professional level. Part of the discussion in this

⁹ *talanoa* is referred to as talk, chat, conversation and exchange of ideas and thinking. It is a process that does not have to be formal or fairly structured. It is a way of exchanging ideas between people and groups. It is subjective, mostly oral and collaborative, and is resistant to rigid institutional hegemonic control.

chapter centres on the challenges of being a local indigenous insider acting as an outsider carrying out the research. The significance of being an indigenous researcher is that one is in a position to both inform and benefit indigenous people (Walsh, 2005).

The methodology for this research as an approach is further shaped by configuring the conceptual framework (Figure 2) following systems analysis. A systems analysis is ranked in terms of effectiveness for fixed cost or in terms of cost for equal effectiveness. It is referred to as cost effectiveness where for each alternative the time stream of costs and the time stream of benefits (both in monetary units) are discounted to yield their present values which is discussed in the latter part of this chapter. Like theories, methodologies cannot be true or false, only more or less useful (Silverman, 1993: 2).

Research Focus

While attempting to address my personal interest in effective aid delivery mechanisms, it became obvious that little primary research has been conducted on aid to teacher education in Fiji. As the world has become more aware of the shortfalls in the impact of aid, the demand for more effective aid delivery has grown. As stated above, the research was designed to add to this critical literature by examining the effectiveness of international aid delivery mechanisms, using the AusAID¹⁰ funded projects to Lautoka Teachers' College (LTCUP) as

¹⁰ The aid programme has been a central and practical part of Australia's national interest engagement in Fiji. It is in Australia's national interest to promote security, stability, and economic growth in the Pacific. Australia has been interested in supporting both stability and the legitimacy of national government, as well as Fiji's viability as a democratic nation. As reiterated time and time again by the Australian Foreign Minister, Alexandra Downer, Australia is committed to long-term engagement in the region on development assistance to Pacific Island Countries (PIC's) (*Australian Aid, Investing in Growth, Stability and Prosperity*, 2005).

case study. The earlier Fiji College of Advance Education (FATEP) and BEMTUP aid initiatives provided not only as background information to critically evaluate the management of international aid it also explores the funding mechanisms used; assessed the delivery approaches, the operational and policy frameworks, and the organisational factors which are critical for enhancing and sustaining the effectiveness of teacher education. I set out to both update and extend this work to see what subsequent changes had been made and identify what effective aid delivery mechanisms can contribute to improve the Fiji education system and national development through better delivery, impact, and sustainability.

Conceptual Framework

It is often said that education is the single best development investment a country can make (Canadian International Development Agency, 2005). Education contributes to better health, higher incomes, and increased participation in community life. As part of their wish to promote these aspects of better living conditions, the international community such as CIDA (2007) and other donors have focused on human development as partners in a global undertaking on three pillars:

1. The *Millennium Development Goals*¹¹(2000), a set of time-bound targets in poverty and hunger reduction, and improvements in health, HIV/AIDS, education, gender equality, environmental sustainability, and global partnerships

¹¹ www.un.org/millenniumgoals/ recovered 11th September, 2009

2. The *Monterrey Consensus*¹²(2002) on the financial and non-aid foundation necessary for development, including a new development compact based on the understanding that developing countries bear primary responsibility for their own development while industrialised countries are committed to providing effective aid
3. *The Paris Declaration on Aid Effectiveness*¹³(2005), reflecting international consensus on five principles of effective development: local ownership, harmonisation, alignment, results, and mutual accountability. This partnership provides a framework to guide the international development community toward global poverty reduction.

These goals and guidelines are the result of various forums which consolidated ideas about principles and targets for the delivery of effective aid and the eradication of poverty. These forums have developed their own measures of aid effectiveness. However, it is argued that for measuring the effectiveness of aid delivery it is important to translate these measures into indicators that are suitable for the local Pacific context. In response to this, the Principles of Pacific Aid Effectiveness has been developed to provide guiding principles for aid delivery in the Pacific Islands. Traditionally, the measurement of aid effectiveness has been carried out through the development and use of yardsticks. The limitation that I perceived in the PPAE was that it provided principles but did not necessarily provide actual practical yardsticks and processes that could be used

¹² www.un.org/esa/sustdev/documents/Monterrey_Consensus.htm recovered 11th September, 2009

¹³ www.oecd.org/dac/effectiveness recovered 11th September, 2009

to measure the effectiveness of specific cases such as the effectiveness of aid delivery in teacher education in Fiji. In response to this, I was

Figure 1 - Research Conceptual Framework

Note: The lines only show the evaluation linkages and not the cause and effect relationships
Source: Adapted from Ruru 2006. Field data

convinced to construct a conceptual framework for strengthening the effectiveness of aid delivery in teacher education in Fiji by defining

actual criteria. The conceptual framework of this research is presented as a systems analysis model as shown in Figure 2. It outlines an appropriate process for effective aid delivery which begins with aid donors' responsiveness to the national strategic development plans of recipient countries. It is designed to facilitate the identification of yardsticks that can be used to measure the effectiveness of the aid delivery mechanisms of the two case study projects.

Krone (1980) emphasises that systems analysis is a powerful tool for leaders and policy makers to use to increase the effectiveness of a process. However Krone (1980) further argues that organisations are systems, but not all systems are organisations, and he asserts that systems analysis enables those wishing to achieve better management by making:

- More fully considered alternative choices
- More efficient and effective utilisation of scarce resources
- Cheaper and/or better achievement of goals
- Improved policymaking - certainly to address matters requiring better rational resource allocation and policy implementation problems and
- Realistic goals and better addressing of challenges with social, cultural, and political components.

(Krone, 1980, p.19)

The systems analysis approach helps those engaged in aid and development to develop a project's logical framework ¹⁴ and to

¹⁴ Logical Framework is a management tool used to improve the design of interventions, most often at the project level. It involves identifying strategic elements (inputs, outputs, outcomes, impact) and their causal relationships, indicators, and the assumptions or risks that may influence success and failure. It thus facilitates planning, execution, and evaluation of a development intervention.

understand the diversity of development cooperation which will assist the scheduling of the project to meet due dates. Gasper (2004) further described the logical framework to be a near universal format for externally funded public sector and NGO developments and programmes of a logical hierarchy, typically of four or five levels but normally with a single objective.

Systems analysis may also yield some valuable lessons about what makes aid effective and sustainable. The lessons learned address issues such as the need for human rights, democratisation, security and good governance in partner countries, and the need for flexibility, predictability, and collaboration among and between donor governments and recipient countries (Mager and Pipe, 1991). The experience gained from systems analysis can also assist to situate the role of development aid within the context of all other sources of national income, including trade, investment, and foreign remittances. It endeavours to provide a framework for sustainable, effective aid delivery which can stimulate debate and reflection on ways to improve aid development arrangements. However the framework for assessing interventions considers design consideration and implementation processes, as well as development results which is the justification for the selection of the case study in this research. The framework seeks to be comprehensive but not intended to be restrictive. It is therefore neither a template nor a checklist but instead a guide to improve the comprehensive assessment, the basis for analysing the project and the identification of lessons for future aid delivery.

Like any project cycle¹⁵ there is a defined time frame for progression from its implementation to completion phase. Systems thinking also

¹⁵ The four stages of the project cycle are, planning, implementation, review and, evaluation.

allows developers to see or think of something as a 'whole' rather than in parts, drawing attention to the importance of recognising relationships and the feedback loop in the complex dynamic environments in which people work, interact, and learn (Pasteur, 2006).

Human Input

Involving the right people in a system is crucial in creating a context that is conducive to making good decisions (Harvard Business School, 2006; Maynnes, 2004; Montuenga-Gomez, et.al, 2007). The “right” people are those who are knowledgeable, have experience, and have a stake in the achievement of the outcomes. In the aid process it is important to involve people with authority to allocate resources and to make decisions stick. This will prevent a situation developing in which a lot of time is spent generating ideas, only to have them ignored or knocked back by senior management or decision makers. In the same way the key stakeholders are the people who will be most directly affected by the decision. These (staff and students at the teacher training institutions) key stakeholders are the implementers and they have to be included very early in the process to ensure effective implementation of the project.

The selection of the right people to be engaged in such funded project is very important. They are required to have the necessary skills and knowledge. However the effective use of resources for both human development and aid initiatives is essential for strong leadership and good management of basic service delivery of aid (Pascoe, 2004). These are the people who are the most likely to be closest to the issue when the project is under review and these experts can provide information about the feasibility of various options. As there are different levels of skills required, there will be a great need for more than one area of

expertise to be involved in the various project phases (Robinson, 2000). Once consolidated, these skills allow for constructive evaluation which is essential during the implementation of the project.

As the underpinning theme of this research, the four critical components or yardsticks for strengthening the aid delivery process and evaluating the process of effective aid delivery are elaborated below.

Yardsticks for aid effectiveness

Measurement of the effectiveness of any project or programme may be complex and painstaking especially if it is not empirically quantifiable in terms of profit and loss. If constructive measures are put in place, these are heavily dependent on regular and reliable feedback and evaluation. It is crucial that a proper system is in place to provide feedback on results and benchmarks. This can be approached in ways that ensure a focus on policy coherence¹⁶ across a range of donor governments which recognise the importance of building institutional and professional links with recipient countries. However, there are various ways in which yardsticks can be used to measure and evaluate the effectiveness of the aid delivery process. This research has adopted and expanded the *Four-Part Aid Effectiveness Agenda* of CIDA (2007) as the tool to strengthen the measuring of the effectiveness of aid delivery. It uses four criteria: effectiveness, efficiency, sustainability, and responsiveness as described below:

- (a) *Effectiveness*: This is one mainstream type of evaluation which measures the degree of achievement of objectives (CIDA,

¹⁶ Policy coherence in this context means the promotion of policy actions across government to support development.

2007:49). This may include the intended output has been translated into the intended (and unintended) outcomes of the project. In the process of aid effectiveness, there are a series of measurement and evaluation exercises used in the mid-term reviews or by a technical advisory group (TAG). The TAGs evaluate the efficiency of the project and provide constructive feedback to the implementers on what they can do to achieve effective project delivery. The effectiveness of a project can be indicated through clear accountability procedures and results strengthened by performance measurements and good reporting (CIDA, 2007; Campos and Pradham, 2007). However Gasper (2004) argued that managerial approaches to effectiveness presume that managers, leaders, or experts always set the objectives and this downgrades issues of democracy, participation, and transparency.

(b) *Efficiency*: The efficiency of projects is gauged by the effective use of resources, accompanied by greater value for money through programming and operational efficiencies. It concerns the cost benefit analysis which looks at how far objectives have been achieved Gasper (2004). This is strengthened by the adaptation of human and financial resources in response to challenges presented as they evolve (CIDA, 2007). It can also be defined as “the optimal transformation of inputs to outputs”¹⁷ (UNDP, 1997: 26). The question of efficiency addresses minimum input of resources (be it human, capital, or any other form), and how to maximise satisfactory or better achievements and outcomes.

¹⁷ UNDP, A Handbook for Program Managers: Result – oriented Monitoring and Evaluation, OESP, 1997, p26

(c) *Sustainability*: This is a critical measure of the capacity and the political commitment of the recipient country to sustain the functional operation of a donor-funded initiative. It is how a recipient country can competently demonstrate its ability to sustain the project through the budgetary allocation of the recurrent operational cost, and to articulate the objectives of the project into workable practices when the project tenure ceases. The UNDP (2000:19) defines sustainability as “the durability of the positive programme or project results after the termination of the technical cooperation channeled through the programme or projects”. The ownership of the programme and projects by the national government is increasingly recognised as paramount to the success and sustainability of such an intervention. There is a strong correlation between the level of ownership and the sustainability of the project (UNDP, 2000). Increased local support due to the buy-in and ownership of the project by the national government is one of the attributes of a sustainable project in terms of meeting its immediate objectives.

(d) *Responsiveness*: The success of any project is determined by how it fits into the context of the recipient country and how the project can promote the country’s socio-economic and cultural expectations. The sensitivity of project management is crucial. It is management’s responsibility to see that it does not interfere with the existing setup, but enhances and promotes better service quality and makes a difference in improving existing standards. Similarly, educational aid projects must relate to a responsive and clear strategic focus. This applies to the micro and the macro education needs of the recipient country and the cultural expectations of the society. The project should be responsive and sensitive to the cultural *status quo*. In embracing

such sensitivity, it will have minimal negative impact but validate the appropriateness of the project to address the basic needs of the recipient country. Being sensitive will promote the coherence of the project and address some of the key elements in achieving sustainable development outcomes. For the LTCUP the appropriateness of the project can be translated to gauge the curriculum pedagogies of the course upgrade and how conducive and relevant it is. The relevance of the programme will be significant in educating and preparing students to be responsible citizens to uphold their cultural values and norms, as explained in detail in chapter 5.

These four measuring criteria, whose core is tied to outcomes, are crucial for gauging the effectiveness of aid delivery. They have been successfully used by CIDA (2007) as criteria to measure the aid effectiveness of global development partnerships with developing countries. These measures are essential for both the donor and recipient's commitments as highlighted in the Paris Declaration and as a means to achieve the MDGs. These measurement tools are similar to the four performance criteria of project appropriateness developed by the Australian Department of Finance (1994), which are: cost effectiveness, effectiveness, and efficiency and sustainability. Similar measurements were used by Veitayaki (2000) in assessing rural fisheries development in Fiji.

In summary, it can be said that there is a strong correlation between high-quality project design and the achievement of immediate objectives. The successful and effective implementation of any project is heavily dependent on feedback and evaluation (de Silva, 1983; UNDP, 2000). This is the measure of how the capacity of the objective or the intended output has been translated into the intended (or

unintended) outcome or the actual output or the desired impact of the project. In the delivery process of most projects, there are a series of measurements and evaluations in the form of mid-term reviews or reports by the technical advisory group (TAG) who evaluate the efficiency of the project and provide constructive feedback to the implementers for effective project delivery (Curtin, 2004). The effectiveness of the project can be indicated by establishing clear accountability for results which is strengthened by performance measurement and reporting (Mancini, and Gujit, 2006; CIDA, 2007).

The core principles of the conceptual research framework (Figure 1) are enshrined in the Pacific Aid Effectiveness Principles (PAEP) (Figure 3), as articulated in the Paris Declaration on Aid Effectiveness (PDAE) (2005) (Appendix II) which will be discussed in detail in Chapter 3. However the relevant principles in the Paris Declaration and the related monitoring indicators (Appendix III) are discussed further in chapter 8.

Figure 2 - Pacific Aid Effectiveness Principles

Principle 1: Country leadership and ownership of development through an accountable and transparent national development planning and financial management system/mechanism which is adequately resourced from the national budget - including longer term operation and maintenance of donor sponsored development
(Paris Declaration Section 14, 19; Indicator 1, 2)

Principle 2: Multi-year commitments by development partners and countries aligned nationally identified priorities as articulated in national sustainable development strategies, or the like, with agreement on performance indicators and monitoring and evaluation mechanisms
(Paris Declaration Section 16, 26; Indicators 3, 5, 7)

Principle 3: Greater Pacific ownership of regional development, Development Partners' Pacific Regional Strategies designed and formulated with the Pacific Plan and other Regional Policies as their cornerstone

(Paris Declaration 14, 15; Indicator 1)

Principle 4: Pacific Development Partners and Countries pursue a coordinated approach in the delivery of assistance. Encouraging harmonization will be a priority for both.

(Paris Declaration 32 – 42; Indicators 9, 10)

Principle 5: Strengthened institutional mechanisms and capacity in countries to enable increased use of local systems by development partners.

(Paris Declaration 17, 21, 22-24, 31; Indicator 4, 6, 8)

Principle 6: (i) Provision of technical assistance (TA), including in aid coordination/management, in such a way that ensures that capacity is built with tangible benefits to the country to support national ownership. Provision of an appropriate level of counterpart resources through established procedures and mechanisms.

(ii) Short term TA, who address local skills gaps to conduct studies, are culturally sensitive.

(Paris Declaration 22-24; Indicator 4)

Principle 7: Use of an agreed monitoring and evaluation framework that will ensure joint assessments of the implementation of agreed commitments on aid effectiveness.

(Paris Declaration 43-46; Indicator 11)

These principles are not legally binding. The European Union has expressed reservation about the principles

Pacific Island Forum Secretariat, Adopted on 13 July 2007, Koror, Palau

These principles were adopted on 13 July, 2007 at the Pacific Island Forum Secretariat meeting, Koror, Palau. They were translated into the PAEP (2007) with the supplementary notes (Appendix I). The principles have been developed in workshops and wide consultation

across the Pacific region, and are designed to fit the Pacific context. A detailed account of the principles is presented in Appendix III.

This research has a lot in common with related aid projects in most PICs, where the guiding principles of the PAEP are relevant and appropriate as yardsticks to gauge aid effectiveness. The use of these yardsticks in the evaluation of a project can be perceived through a two-pronged approach (UNDP, 2000) which operates at two levels. Firstly, at the institutional level the goal was to determine the impact of the development strategy. Evaluation of aid projects has shown evidence that as a corollary to the strategic focus, there is a growing recognition that development effectiveness hinges on the ability of any organisation or project to identify its comparative advantage to build on, and engage in partnerships with others to offer coherent and efficient strategies. Secondly, at the operational level, delivering on ownership, capacity building, and sustainability requires a thorough understanding of AusAID, its performance, and the challenges it faces. If these two levels operate in harmony, this will ensure the sustainability of the project. Sustainability has traditionally been understood from the perspective of project delivery; however sustainability is also ultimately dependent on the existence of strong development policies of local government (Collier and Dollar, 2001)

Power Relations

Consistent with the PAR approach, the theoretical perspective of this study is concerned with relationships of power (Chambers, 2006). The power relationship between the donor and the recipient country is a crucial element in the delivery of aid. This theoretical perspective critically orientates and analyses how power has been exercised in the aid delivery mechanism. It is important to understand the constantly

changing aid agenda using such a theoretical perspective. Power relations have been associated with gauging to what extent procedures and processes are rooted in learning from practice, and how they are driven by the changing ideologies and perceptions of those with power (Eccless, et. al., 1992).

One of the compelling issues of power relations in aid delivery is the question of having a level playing field in the different stages of the aid delivery process. Chambers (2006) perceived that power in different stages of development can be transformed to enhance behaviour. This can be carried out through mutual roles in conveying, facilitating, coaching, supporting, inspiring, and acting as a broker to empower those who may not be as powerful. The use of power to transform is discussed by Chambers and is presented visually in Figure 3.

Figure 3 – Chamber's Transforming Types of Power

The issue of power relations has been common and prevalent in decolonisation and post-colonial relationships as development occurs (Chambers, 2006). In the aid delivery process, both donors and recipient countries should foster genuine partnerships where there is consensus and where both aid donor interests and aid recipients' needs are accommodated. This is explained in detail in Chapter 4. The mutual empowerment process will enhance the effectiveness and the sustainability of aid delivery.

Methodology

Qualitative Methodological Approach

The study is based on a qualitative research form of investigation to provide an avenue that can lead to the understanding of effective aid delivery mechanisms where it utilises the participatory action research (PAR) approach¹⁸. The research involves the active involvement of the researcher with members of a group of the community being studied, typically as an equal status member. The methodology includes strategies for obtaining data (notably strategies of gaining access to situations, developing relationships with informants, leaving the field setting), the process of becoming socialised to the field settings, and choices involved in the collection of materials (strategies for taking field notes) that bear upon the analysis and presentation of data are described. Ethical issues include deceptions, informed consent, confidentiality, and precision of description (Walsh, 2005). PAR has become established in recent years as a powerful tool for development workers. It enables the participants to share their perception of a problem, to find a common ground, and then to engage a variety of people in identifying and

¹⁸ PAR is discussed at greater length below

testing out some possible solutions (Laws, Harper, and Marcus, 2003).

The PAR approach also provides for the development of solutions to problems because it actively involves those who have the greatest stake in the issues (Sarantakos, 1993; Laws, Harper, and Marcus, 2003). The approach enables better links to be made between aid donors and the recipient stakeholders in a policy focused project (Laws, Harper, and Marcus, 2003). In the course of the PAR approach, this study analyses the philosophy of power relations in the delivery of aid between the donor and the recipient countries through the *talanoa* sessions - a methodology which is described by Vaiolleti (2003) as being subjective, mostly oral and collaborative, and resistant to rigid institutional hegemonic control. The *talanoa* sessions, as a research tool, allowed for discussions and engagement with relevant stakeholders and communities.

A case study approach

The case study methodology provided an opportunity to discover and document the process of the relationships of the research and the systems for aid delivery to teacher education (Bouma, 1996). It allowed a closely focused study of the mechanics of the LTC project and the FATEP as background information of the aid delivery mechanisms. Implementation was assessed using the yardsticks or measures of effectiveness outlined in the conceptual framework (as shown in Figure 2). The approach was kept as widely open as possible so that the findings could be used in other general surveys and yet focused enough to provide a guide for other aid projects looking for clear guidelines to produce effective results (Walsh, 2005). In Chapter

9 I will present a culturally informed *aid bure* (*whare, or fale*) as a model built on the results of the research to guide effective aid delivery for Fiji.

Methods

Multiple Method Approach

A range of multiple research methods was utilised during the fieldwork which included participant observation, focus groups, and semi-structured interviews through the *talanoa* sessions. The methods utilised were selected according to their relevance to the research questions and how they fitted with accepted research methodologies. Both primary and secondary data presented in the project documents were interpreted and analysed. The primary data was obtained through discussion and semi-structured interviews conducted as part of the *talanoa* process with the staff of the Fiji Aid Unit, AusAID officers in the Australian Embassy in Suva, and staff of the European Union (EU) mission in Suva. Similar data collection procedures were carried out with staff and students of both the LTCUP and the FCAE; and the project team leader and consultants involved with the LTCUP (1990-2006) and Ministry of Education (MOE), Ministry of Finance (MOF) officials. Some community members in the housing estate close to the vicinity of the LTC were also selected and interviewed at random. The genuine integration of the multiple methods used helped to overcome the limitations and biases of single purpose methods to produce a rich data source. The methodology was cumulative and involved facilitating a collaborative process of knowledge sharing construction and reconstruction which became a major tenet of the research process. As Walsh (2005) has asserted, the use of such triangulation of methods enriches the findings.

The secondary data was gathered through intensive research on archived documents on overseas educational aid in the Ministry of Finance (MOF) (2000-2006), AusAID (1990-2004), and the Ministry of Education archived documents. The MOF as the agency that coordinates of bilateral trade and treaties through the Ministry of Foreign Affairs and Trade, provided a wealth of documents from established aid donors such as Australia, New Zealand, and the European Union. Triangulation¹⁹ was a parallel, ongoing task and I constantly worked to locate sources of information that would be able to validate the information collected. The cross checking of all data was a constant underlying theme of the research activity.

Thus, the combination of the analysis of primary and secondary data allowed a better in-depth understanding of the situation than could have been gained from a single-method approach (Silverman, 1997). Burns (2000) emphasises that the mixed method²⁰ is an approach which is desirable for improving “internal validity” and providing greater clarity within the data collected. Creswell (2003) also affirms that the mixed method is advantageous because it is familiar to most researchers and can result in well-validated and substantiated findings.

¹⁹ The use of several different methods to test or verify a research finding is particularly useful in qualitative research. There are four types of triangulation: data triangulation- which uses several sources and settings; investigation triangulation – using team research; theory triangulation – which considers several hypotheses or explanations; and methodological triangulation - which uses a mix of methods (e.g. observation, interview, survey). This enriches findings but does not always necessarily verify them.

²⁰ The use of three or more theories, sources of information, or types of analysis to verify and substantiate an assessment to overcome the bias that comes from single information, single methods, single observer, or single theory studies. Combining multiple data source, methods, analysis or theories, evaluators seek to overcome the bias that comes from single information, single methods, single observer, or single theory studies.

One encounters greater difficulty in trying to coordinate the logistics when the data sources are quite distant. I had to travel between Lautoka, Suva, and other parts of Fiji to collect information from new graduates and triangulate the data (Figure 4).

Figure 4 - Fiji Map

Source: Knox, M., (1970). *Fiji the Land and the People*. Addison Wesley Longman, New Zealand, p x

As an insider (whilst a staff member at LTC during the early stage of the LTCUP), now an outside researcher (carrying out an in-depth study as a PhD candidate at Victoria University of Wellington), gaining access to the LTCUP project documents was negotiated with great deal of good will and considerable assistance from the Principal of the

College. The assistance given by staff members and the project leader, together with the help of a few consultants during their recent input was remarkably generous. While I was carrying out my field research all those who had played a part in the project were extremely cooperative and willing to share their views and experiences. On the other hand, data for the FATEP project and the BEMTUP, which were conducted more than ten years ago, were equally relevant as background information. The excellent study carried out by Coxon (2000); Nabobo (2000, 2003) and Puamau, (2005a, 2005b) were particularly helpful. By the time I followed up on their work eighty percent (80%) of the staff had departed (Nabobo, 2007, personal communication). I had to rely on archival and secondary data. The *talanoa* sessions with former staff members now employed in other educational institutions such as the University of the South Pacific (USP) proved to be very informative and provided valuable primary information sources.

Data Collection

To answer research questions, good data need to be collected (Walsh, 2005). To ensure this, due attention was given to the validity²¹ and reliability²² of the data collected to answer the research questions which focuses on whatever is supposed to be measured (Wolcott, 1994). Smith (1990) argues that valid research is distinguished from invalid research in terms of the extent to which the proper procedures are applied. However, this might seem more applicable for

²¹ Validity is concerned with the extent to which variables reflects the concepts intended, and that research results are what they claim to be (Walsh, 2005).

²² Reliability tests the extent to which different operationalisations of the same concept produce consistent results (Walsh, 2005).

quantitative research than for qualitative research. In this research project, it was important to maintain a communication strategy, to interview the right people, and to maintain uniformity in the semi-structured interviews that were used for field research. The timing and coordination of data collection was essential in this research because the respondents and the location of the data sources were scattered in different parts of Fiji. This was especially apparent when new teachers had to be interviewed and engaged in the *talanoa* sessions.

Qualitative Data

The data collection instrument utilised in this primary research, was predominantly qualitative because I believe that only such a methodology would enable me to recreate and explore the ‘reality’ of a given educational setting. Such a setting may not be seen as a fixed, stable entity, but as a type of variable which might be discerned only through an analysis of multiple forms of understanding (Burns, 2000). In either case, the model is a tool that helps to administer the research most effectively and facilitate order in the course of the study, where it favours the placing of community participation at the core (Laws, et. al., 2003). According to Silverman (1993), comparing different kinds of data (e.g. quantitative and qualitative) and different methods (e.g. observation and interviews and group meetings) to find whether they collaborate through triangulation results in different bearings which, taken together, give the correct position of the object. However, one of the major limitations of qualitative research is the time required for data collection, analysis and interpretation, and there is a critical need for the researcher to spend a considerable amount of time in the research setting in order to examine,

holistically and aggregately, the interaction, reactions, and activities of the subject (Burns, 2000).

Participatory Research Methodology

This research collected both primary and secondary data. The primary data was gathered through field research work utilising the participatory action research (PAR) approach and the *talanoa* method as a medium for collecting in-depth information. PAR is appropriate for a critical-interpretive approach which holds that a call to action has a better chance of resulting in solutions to problems because it actively involves those who best understand and have the greatest stake in the issues - the participants themselves (Laws et. al, 2003). It is embedded within a process of development work in a way in which traditional research practices would not be (Laws et. al, 2003). PAR is derived from a number of different approaches both in the Northern and Southern hemispheres which is a form of research characterised by participation of members of the community in the research process (Sarantakos, 1993). This type of approach goes by different names in different parts of the world - action research, practitioner research, participative inquiry, participatory learning and action/participatory research and action (PLA/PRA), participatory and action research (PAR). PAR allows the critical voices of aid recipients to be heard and the way they want relevant aid to benefit them effectively in their local and cultural context. The PAR approach also encourages a strong degree of involvement and participation of organisations and communities in the research process (Laws et.al, 2003). The PAR approach makes a better link to study the relationships among the aid donors, the recipient stakeholders, and the policy-focused project. Consequently the PAR approach gauges the effectiveness of aid as a

means of empowerment and consensus which allows for greater localised views and information (Chambers, 1989).

Primary data

The stakeholders involved in the three aid projects were easily identified because I knew them personally in my capacity as a former teacher educator. The key informants were very cooperative and supportive in the primary data collection exercise. Further to this, notes and running documentations of the project were conducted and submitted as primary data. I had to arrange for convenient times for the *talanoa* sessions which were usually after official hours for civil servants. In some instances I had to revisit some of the informants more than once to confirm and triangulate some of the information. This was to assure the validity and reliability of data.

Secondary Data

Secondary data was collected by way of document analysis. It consisted of analysis of available government documents and donor reports. These educational documents provided preliminary insights into the various policies of the government. Data was available and collected from the principal document sources such as the Prime Ministers Office, the Australian Embassy and donor reports, Ministry of Finance (Aid Unit), Ministry of Education Annual Statistic Reports, Ministry of Education Annual Reports, Ministry of Education strategic plans and relevant policies, National Strategic and Strategic Plans, and regional and international Agencies' reports on country specifics.

The aid policy documents of AusAID and the EU provided some important information about the delivery and conditions of educational aid. As the study progressed, other documents were identified and submitted as relevant data. The relevant international literature was visited and revisited to identify and allow for better insights into the impact of aid in educational development. Burns (2000) affirmed that returning to the literature review provides further insights into the data and this proved to be rewarding in the writing up phase. The secondary data documents also helped with the selection of samples and to inform primary data gathered.

During the study, documents were collected from the various government offices and the Australian Embassy, and other relevant documents which informed the subject of the study were also collected from other sources. The following is a broad outline of PAR tools, methods, and approaches that were utilised for qualitative data and information collection in the field.

Semi-structured interviews

Interviewing is a common method of collecting qualitative data and a set of interview question guidelines were used to conduct semi-structured interviews (Appendix IV). The questions were derived from emerging themes identified from the *talanoa* sessions. It was an effective way of prompting people to tell their stories (Graham, 2008). Vaoleti (2006) describes *talanoa* as talk, chat, conversation and exchange of ideas and thinking which will be discussed in the latter part of this chapter.

The interviews included both semi-structured and open-ended questions (refer to Appendix 3) which were designed to be culturally

appropriate and respectful. It also provided opportunities for respondents to freely share their experiences with confidence in talking about their respective aid projects. The questions were focused on the unique challenges of effective aid delivery in teacher education. They were used to probe and to check for consistency through the use of content analysis technique. The semi-structured interviews were purposefully directed to address the research questions of the study (Chapter 1). This evolved around the *talanoa* settings as explained in detail in the later part of this chapter. At the outset of the semi-structured interview using the *talanoa* approach, the underlying purpose of the research was clearly outlined to the participants in the preamble.

The semi-structured interview generated an enormous wealth and depth of knowledge and information for the case and background studies. This worked particularly well for the case study because the participants were new graduates who had just entered the early weeks of their teaching career and were still reminiscing on their teacher training days. Most of them expressed how much they sorely missed college life and their college mates who had been posted to different parts of Fiji. There were other teachers who had been teaching for the last two to three years. They too were part of the initial stage of the project. Their participation in the *talanoa* sessions were very constructive because they were in a better position to provide a comparative analysis of life at the teachers college before and after the project. Their increasing number of years of teaching allowed them to confidently draw a more critical and constructive view of the project and its impact. As the teachers were knowledgeable and learned, communication was not an issue and the conversation at the *talanoa* flowed very easily. However, I sensed in some instances that there was some rigidity among teachers (recent graduates) who were

very cautious and treated the *talanoa* situation as formal and myself, as researcher, with the respect and distance of a former lecturer. I had to clarify the rules of engagement and procedures to encourage them to minimise the formal approach to the way they responded and participated in the *talanoa* sessions. Respect for teachers and older people in the community, is a cultural norm in the Fijian setting.

In the course of the interview stage, I visited the former graduates who benefited from AusAID LTCUP in 2005 & 2006. They were in their first year of teaching. This was quite a cumbersome logistic task. However, by fortunate coincidence, the Practicum Lecturer at LTC, Mr. Anoop Kumar, was visiting the greater western schools for the LTC trainee teacher teaching practicum placement arrangement, and I was able to accompany him whilst carrying out field work. This worked well.

To allow for the wider consultation across the community, I also had a few *talanoa* sessions with the community members who live around the teachers college vicinity. These are people who lived in the various housing settlements adjacent to the teachers college during the project. The community was involved in the *talanoa* sessions because they had their stories, too, of how the project had influenced the housing community. The approach to this data collection was different since the people within the community had a wide range of levels of understanding. I had to use the vernacular language in some situations. It was fortunate that there were some Indo-Fijian participants who were able to translate for the Indo-Fijians who were not so fluent in English. This allowed everyone to participate and share their experience of the LTCUP project. The multiracial composition of the community allowed in-depth responses according

to their racial perspectives, beliefs, and knowledge of the project and education as a whole.

Document Analysis

The collection of documents was an ongoing process. These documents provided key information for sample selection as well as research protocols. Project documents for both the LTCUP case study and the background FATEP research lodged in the registries of the respective institutions while the BEMBTUP was documented in the AusAID/LTCUP Revised Project Design Document (2004) and Fiji Island Education Commission Report by Coxon (2000). Unfortunately, the earlier project did not have many documents, but documentation for the more recent undertaking was particularly good and the papers were well filed and kept safely in the project office. As a former member of the LTC institution, access to these documents was made available with the compliments of the project leader who was at the college during one of his follow up assignments. Fortunately, I had access to the required data and information such as the Project Design Documents (PDD) and the Project Implementation Document (PID). This included the logical framework and other relevant documents. The principal and the staff members were equally cooperative in providing essential information which was crucial for triangulation in the *talanoa* sessions.

Direct Observation

Direct observation was made to verify the MOE aid policy achievements and their impacts on the respective AusAID projects (FATEP and LTCUP). These were analysed and triangulated in semi-structured interviews through the *talanoa* sessions. The measure of

the direct observation was guided by the analysis of how effective the translation of the Project Document Design (PDD) and the Project Implementation Document (PID) were as outlined in the project logical framework (Log frame). The relevance and the workability of these two documents were translated into intended and unintended outcomes as articulated in the conceptual framework (Figure 2). These results were analysed to ensure the responses and the observed features were positively enforced. The methodology allowed for fair testing and justified responses to reduce the likelihood of baseless claims.

Discussion and Interviews

Discussions and semi-structured interviews were arranged with key government officials relating to project work in various departments, such as the Ministry of Education, the Ministry of Finance, the Prime Ministers office, participating Non-Government Organisation (NGOs), and community based organisations as well as with key persons in the community. This method allowed people who were linked to the project in various ways to comment on shared features of their project involvement. According to Silverman (1993), it is important that each respondent understands the questions in the same way and that answers can be coded in a way that avoids uncertainty.

Talanoa Approach

According to Vaiolleti (2003), *talanoa* means to talk, chat, converse and exchange ideas and thinking. *Talanoa* is derived from the Fijian word *tala* meaning to inform, tell, relate, and command, as well as ask or apply. *Noa* means any kind, or ordinary, nothing in particular,

purely imaginary or void. *Talanoa* literally means talking about nothing (in particular), and interacting without a rigid framework.

It is a process that does not have to be formal or strongly structured. It is a way of exchanging ideas between people and groups. *Talanoa* methodology is defined as:

subjective, mostly oral and collaborative, and is resistant to rigid institutional hegemonic control.

(Vaiioleti 2003, p 3)

Vaiioleti (2003) affirmed that the use of *talanoa* methodology is a more culturally appropriate tool of investigation for Pacific Island people, as it will have synergy with Pacific people's ways of life. It allows people to engage in social conversation which may lead to critical discussions or knowledge creation that allows rich contextual and inter-related information as constructed stories. In an indigenous setting such as Fiji, it is a method proposed to disseminate information by local government, NGOs, and village representatives. Vaiioleti, (2003) also considers it as a recommendation for collecting information from village leaders and different government agencies with the notion of using the findings to formulate national policy proposals.

Pacific people have their own ways of doing things through their unique epistemologies (Vaiioleti, 2006). According to Smith (1999), indigenous researchers acknowledge cultural protocol, values, and behaviour as an integral part of methodology. The following issues were raised by Nabobo (2007) when she discussed certain appropriateness protocols of *talanoa* sessions to be observed whilst researching in the Fijian context:

- The participants' ages, clan membership and social status;

- The social status, gender and clan membership of the researcher who is requesting the knowledge;
- The people present during the *talanoa* to validate *talanoa* or speaker's account;
- The *yaqona* was presented formally to request the speaker to speak and the *yaqona* provided by the owner of the house to be drunk during *talanoa/veitalanoa*;
- The gifting (appreciation); and
- The type or questions/probing to take place.

(Nabobo, 2007 IOE workshop on SLEP, 12-16 Feb, 2007, USP, Suva)

The *talanoa* sessions as a research tool is integrated into a process in which the researcher humbly requests to gain access to people's knowledge, opinion, and feelings by observing certain traditional protocols and using various PAR tools. The philosophies, beliefs, and principles of knowledge in the social set up is determined to a large extent by how knowledge is handled, viewed, passed on, processed, critiqued, and discussed through the *talanoa* (Nabobo-Baba, 2006). The *talanoa* approach can be viewed as a Fijian *vanua* research where access to knowledge is not a right; it is a gift that belongs to the community and access can properly only be granted at their discretion. It can be a story one person may tell as an account of their experience and presented as a monologue while others listen.

Different groups were included with different approaches to maximise the range of responses to the participatory exercise. There are certain protocols which are followed in the lead-in to a *talanoa* in which permission is sought to gain access to a host audience to set up a *veitalanoa*²³ session. It is more than a one-on-one *talanoa* and the interaction between people creates an opportunity for a combination of observation and participant observation.

²³ A group with two or more engaged in a talk, chat or conversation.

Unlike a structured interview, the *talanoa* approach is more like an informal discussion in an interactive setting. It is used to request the knowledge the researcher is seeking, and it allows for greater localised views and information. It is an appropriate approach to Fijian research because it embodies Fijian protocols in the sharing of information. A *talanoa* does not happen in a void but in the community, a *talanoa* or a request for *talanoa* is a request given in a specific cultural context with concomitant (mutual) expectations - however these may be articulated by the people concerned. According to Nabobo-Baba (2006), the culture of the local people in the research sample, dictates to some degree the conditions under which knowledge is sought. Local ways of knowing also dictate the type of knowledge that is given and to whom it can be entrusted. As a consequence the *talanoa* is not a free for all. The *talanoa* session is guided by rules of relationship and kinship, shared ways of knowing and knowledge and worldviews. It is a culturally appropriate strategy deemed to be relevant to this research because it allows the participants to openly share their views on the aid related issues (Nabobo-Baba, 2006). *Talanoa* was not an empty form of conversation, but culturally appropriate in substance and strategy, particularly when respondents could see that I, as the researcher, adhered to the expected protocols. As already indicated, different groups were included via different approaches to maximise the intended outcome of their participation. Although the *talanoa* session is a process that is neither formal nor rigidly structured, it has some underlying protocols which ensure that issues of status are fully taken into account whereby a meeting is set up between 'equals' so that ideas and observations can be freely expressed. A *talanoa* session can take place in more than one form; it can be either one-on-one or it can be with a focus group. The respondents are more open when they are among their peers of the same status, but are not

comfortable to participate when they are with others of different age or status group. Consequently, to maximize their contribution, I had to organize *talanoa* sessions for the respondents according to their status, otherwise some would not participate fully in the open *talanoa* discussions. The management of the different groups within the same institution was a mammoth task in terms of logistical arrangements. Given their busy schedules and their very tight programmes arranging for the respondents into one place at the same time was far from easy.

Epistemological questions of the talanoa approach

Constructivist epistemology provides a philosophical ground on which to decide what kind of knowledge is both adequate and legitimate. There is no objective truth waiting for us to discover it, because truth or meaning comes from our engagement with the realities of our world (Vygotsky, 1978). In the Fijian context, how information is requested or obtained, whether in the form of recalled experience or stories, is crucial because unstated, underlying rules of respect are deeply ingrained in the process. If a request is properly negotiated then it will be reciprocated with a genuine reply but if it is abrasive, and the researcher reveals his or her lack of respect, then little of significance will be returned. Unacceptable behaviour will not allow for a conducive *talanoa* spirit and atmosphere to develop and enhance a genuine *talanoa* (conversation) or exchange of ideas and views. It is essential that the appropriate protocols, structures, and processes are followed to set the platform that determines the way knowledge seekers ask their questions. When the atmosphere is right, then the people of knowledge in the particular community - cultural set up - will speak on behalf of their group or clan. The selection of

participants has to be done diplomatically with full consultation so that the researcher avoids excluding or in any way insulting important people in the process. Local notions of status, age and clan boundaries all need to be acknowledged as part of setting up a *talanoa* forum (Nabobo-Baba, 2006).

Some Protocols of Talanoa

In the process of carrying out this research as an indigenous researcher, I had to value the inevitable influence of the local culture on people's way of life; and wise researchers take heed of these cultural nuances (Yabaki, 2006). There were some expected obvious Fijian cultural values and protocols which had to be observed and taken into account to set and guide the engagement of the *talanoa* methodology and PAR processes which included the following:

<i>na vakarokoroko</i>	showing respect
<i>na veiciqomi</i>	being tolerant and accommodating
<i>na veikauwaitaki</i>	to notice, to take care and to show concern
<i>na veirogorogoci</i>	listening and respecting each other's views
<i>na veivakararamataki</i>	enlightenment
<i>na veivakaduavatataki</i>	to bring together, conciliate and harmonise
<i>veivakayalovinakataki</i>	creating goodwill all around
<i>veidinadinati</i>	being faithful to a consensus agreement
<i>veisolisoli</i>	to be generous, to give freely of each other
<i>veivosoti</i>	act of forgiveness
<i>vakaqacotaka</i>	make secure, to consolidate

<i>vakanuinui</i>	expressions of best intent
<i>i vakarau</i>	a way of behaving
<i>tabu</i>	restriction
<i>dina</i>	truth

Adapted from Nabalarua, (2005:7)

In acknowledging my LTC colleagues, I showed my *vakarokoroko* (respect) as it is culturally appropriate to present my traditional *sevusevu* through the presentation of *yaqona*²⁴ (*piper methysticum*). A similar presentation was made to other respondents as a gesture of respect through which I negotiated access to other teacher training institutions, the Curriculum Development Unit and government offices. It was a genuine gesture to acknowledge their *veiciqomi* (tolerance and accommodation) on my arrival, seeking their cooperation and blessings as participants in the process of my data collection.

The *i sevusevu* is a ceremonial offering of *yaqona* offered both by the host and the guest to honour each party's respectful acceptance of the other (Ravuvu, 1983). The presentation of the *i sevusevu* has common cultural significance in Fiji and also within many of the other small Pacific states. Its use emphasises the importance of the relationship

²⁴ The word 'yaqona' (*piper methysticum*) refers both to the plant and drink which is made from it by steeping the pulped fresh roots (or its powdered and dried equivalent) in an appropriate amount of water which is pounded and drunk in a both formal and informal gatherings or any discussion. It is regarded as a national Fijian drink, as is wine or beer in other cultures, and is still the major part of religious, political, and social activities widely spread throughout Pacific cultures. Besides its daily use, *yaqona* plays an important ceremonial and social role in the indigenous culture. It is through the medium of *yaqona* that direct communication (with the spirit world) can be achieved (Ravuvu, 1987).

between the hosts and their guests. In my situation, it was a presentation to request access to people and gather information. The College staff, as the hosts, acknowledged my return as a welcome to one of their former colleagues. According to Ravuvu (1987), it is good practice to offer *a i sevusevu* to anyone including visiting relatives. My *i sevusevu* was well received and appreciated because, although I had been away from the country, it was clear I still observed and showed *na vakarokoroko* (respect) to basic Fijian protocols. In most situations the *i sevusevu* was acknowledged and reciprocated by such a gesture is held in high regard within the *vakaqacotaki* (securing and consolidating) a relationship within Fijian culture to establish rapport.

According to Nabobo-Baba (2006), the acceptance of the *i sevusevu* by the host from the visitor also means that at least for the duration of his/her stay, the visitor is granted temporary resident status. This can qualify the visitor to be temporarily part of the societal unit. To the host, the presentation is perceived as the visitor's acknowledgement of the *status quo* and demonstration of his/her sensitivity towards the cultural expectation of the host community. Such a gesture establishes the grounds for a firm and good rapport from which a genuine research engagement can proceed.

By engaging in the basic protocols, goodwill, or *veivakayalovinakataki* (creating goodwill all around) an ambiance was set up which allowed local people to freely share their knowledge and information because the *i vakarau* (way of behaving) was consistent with a shared emphatic understanding of trust, a *veidinadinati* (consensus agreement). The *veikauwaitaki* (care) taken showed concern that all the information gathered would be kept with utmost confidentiality as outlined in the research ethical approval agreement (Appendix V). My assurances prompted them to accept that my declaration was *dina*

(genuine and true) in a manner that acknowledged their *i vakarau* (behavioural) as my own .

At the end of the data collection phase and the *talanoa* sessions, I presented *yaqona* as my *i tatau* (request to leave) and which provided an occasion on which I could express my appreciation for their participation. It was an opportunity to bid farewell before I returned to Victoria University of Wellington. The gesture acknowledged and reciprocated their goodwill and their openness in sharing their valuable knowledge.

Limitations of the Talanoa Approach

The *talanoa* approach has been viewed as an appropriate methodology for this research, however it does not exclude the fact that it has some shortcomings. Sometimes the *talanoa* sessions do not achieve the essence of qualitative research and expectations of data collection. Such circumstance is bound to happen when the sense of trust is absent and consequently honest answers may not be revealed. However in a *talanoa* session there is a potential problem where it is difficult to tell the validity of the answers. Therefore there is a strong need for triangulation to cross check the responses. The *talanoa* session enhances a conducive setting for getting information in which people express how they, feel and think but may not be good a forum at obtaining hard facts and figures. Therefore the use of more than one data gathering techniques in this research assist in answering the research questions to provide different perspectives on the situation whereby increasing what is known about it (Bouma, 1996: 180)

Participants

The composition of respondents engaged in the research was diverse and they had enormous depth of knowledge in relation to the topic. The 203 respondents (refer to Table 12 for composition) covered a wide cross section of personnel related directly or indirectly to the case study institutions. As the LTC project was built close to a housing suburb, I consulted a few people in the community in the housing estate who dwelled around the LTC & FCAE vicinities. Some of them were parents of trainee teachers when the project was in progress. They were very cooperative and participated well in the *talanoa* sessions during the data collection process.

The key informants involved in semi-structured interviews included the Officials of the Prime Ministers Office, officials of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs, Trade & External Affairs, AusAID Officials (Fiji), European Union Officials, Consultants (Short & Long term). They were selected because they had a high profile involvement in the respective educational aid projects, and the questionnaires were sent to them to get their responses about what was done during the projects. I could not engage all of them in a *talanoa* session, but most of them were available for the *talanoa* sessions. The semi-structured interview questions were sent or faxed to them well in advance. As a consequence, the officers actively participated and were focused on the questions raised. Apart from their busy schedules, the participants were generally cooperative and appreciative of the motive and the objective of the research. They expressed their interest in the importance of better aid delivery mechanisms. They were interested in the findings of the research as well. Their personal experiences were very practical and meaningful and their comments were constructive

and lent themselves to qualitative data analysis. The semi-structured interview sessions enhanced the triangulation and verification of some of the documentaries in relation to educational aid projects.

As the research was related to educational aid, officers related to the projects were consulted. There were some instances where I had to consult them more than once to verify and triangulate information. The government officials of the Ministry of Finance, Ministry of Education, Principals of Teacher Training Colleges, Staff and Students (Teachers College), and graduates (when the project was implemented) were involved in the *talanoa* sessions. This was carried out mostly after official work hours. I commend them for their generosity and having the patience to participate in after-hours *talanoa* sessions. This was possible because of my prior connection to the MOE and the MOF, as most of the officers were my fellow undergraduates at the University of the South Pacific. The warm rapport created an atmosphere conducive to the sharing of depths of insight and the discussion of sensitive issues pertaining to the research topic.

Access of participants

Permission to gain access to the ‘field’ required the approval from the heads of several government ministries. As a civil servant on study leave, permission was sought from the Permanent Secretary of Education to gain access to collect data from the two government teacher training institutions named above. This required a research approval letter (Appendix II) which clearly outlined the conditions of confidentiality and stated that the final copy of my thesis was to be forwarded to the MOE which reserved the right to edit, publish and otherwise circulate the results of my work. As a researcher, I declared my intention to conform to the ethical protocols laid by Victoria

University of Wellington, be they implied or explicit. The data collection procedures for the research also centred on values of mutual trust and principles relevant to Fiji, and were employed in order to respect the various Ministry ethics and the local Fijian culture. I presented a letter to this effect to the various Government Ministries, outlining the objective of the research. Those who were to take part were given ample time to deliberate before they were engaged in a semi-structured interview or a *talanoa* session, whichever I felt appropriate according to their availability. Like the MOE, other government ministries and embassies also raised matters relating to their interests and concerns regarding the confidentiality of data and the collection procedures involved. All agreements and understanding entered into were followed to the letter.

Focus groups

The focus groups were categorised according to their professional groupings related to the work they do (refer to table 12 for respondent composition). Many of the respondents had strong personal views concerning the projects under review. These views were forcefully and skilfully articulated and form the larger part of the material carried into the analysis. The participants, (the officers of the respective government ministries and embassies, the staff of the teachers training institutions, the community, and the new graduates) had a lot to say. They created opportunities to access in-depth documentation and first hand information. They were encouraged to participate actively and make their voices heard (Laws et. al, 2003). Because they were raising issues on matter which they had direct experience and prior knowledge, they were able to speak with

confidence. The participants also developed innovative ideas and proposed alternative solutions for better aid delivery mechanisms.

Data Analysis

The initial data analysis began with basic description of the case study and the teacher training institutions as a whole. This provided a context within which to analyse the emerging data. The description included the basic institutional survey, and structure in relation to the education system around Fiji and the nation as a whole was conducted. An analysis of the field notes and interviews was made using a simplified version of grounded theory data analysis approach (refer to Miles and Huberman, 1994). Essentially the data was analysed in the following manner:

- The researcher read the transcript a number of times to familiarise himself with the data;
- Comments were identified that related to the four (4) stages of the project (planning, implementation, review and evaluation);
- Any phrase/comments (codes) that related to the four stages were identified and classified (wherever possible) into patterns and;
- From the codes and the patterns a number of overarching findings (themes) arose and from these, an '*aid bure*' model was developed.

The analysis of data was both onerous and time consuming where the emphasis is on developing the capacity of local people as an end in itself. Intensive fieldwork was interpreted with respondents through

participant observation, discussion, interviews, and talanoa transcripts. In addition, the study used several sources of secondary data as documentary sources (official and unofficial, bilateral and multilateral) including library research books, journals, policy documents, country reports, project reports, and statistical data of aid in Fiji. This was an ongoing process as the study proceeded. Field study and observations were carried out at various research study venues. Government reports provided the formal background of the aid initiatives and the Terms of Reference (TOR). Data processing of fieldwork included data editing, synthesis, triangulation, and analysis of information. A summary of the research findings through the field data analyses of respondents is summarised in a matrix table (Table 13) using the four stages of the project (planning, implementation, review and evaluation for project sustainability). Detailed analysis of the data is also presented and discussed in chapters six and seven.

Ethical issues

The key in identifying ethical issues in social science research which deals with people and groups is to take the position of the subject of the research (Bouma, 1996). Similarly this research fieldwork involved human subjects and therefore required ethics approval by the Human Ethics Committee of Victoria University of Wellington. The objective of this ethical approval is to ensure that the researcher is aware of the ethical issues of research or teaching activities that involve human subjects. The ethical approval process also safeguards the interest of the researcher by encouraging them and those whose cooperation they seek in gathering data. Furthermore, it serves to protect the respondents' right to remain anonymous and to have their rights to privacy and confidentiality respected (Laws, et. al, 2003; Vardy and Grosch, 1999). An application for ethical approval was submitted to

the committee and formal approval was received on 16 December, 2006 (Appendix V). It was after the approval was granted that I proceed with my fieldwork in early January to July 2006.

When the fieldwork was carried out in Fiji, it involved different sections of society, both government and non-government offices. Prior approval was sought from the Permanent Secretary of Education to gather data from the two teachers colleges (Appendix VI). Some students, parents, and community members consented to participate in the research. The ethical considerations were outlined clearly in the course of data collection. As Walsh (2005) asserts, it is an important underlying principle that proper guidelines are followed to protect people who cannot protect themselves against unethical and culturally insensitive research.

There were instances where no written consent was sought from the participants, however I was careful to request oral consent before data was collected through the *talanoa* process. In situations where no written consent was involved, a culturally sensitive agreement of mutual respect and trust was negotiated beforehand.

On some occasions, I produced a letter from my supervisor which served as an introduction as well as providing an opportunity to inform officials of the research (Appendix VII). In addition, I also provided a note that described the objectives and expected outcomes of the research, and assurances of confidentiality and proper management and storage of all the information provided. The letter offered participants a chance to be acknowledged, otherwise I promised to strictly protect the confidentiality of the sources of all the information they provided.

All the data, information and notes have been stored safely in secure storage spaces. Confidentiality has been carefully protected as well. Only my supervisors and I have access to this information. As stipulated in the ethical approval document, the data will be stored for four years following the completion of the research. The findings of this research shall remain limited to this particular study until they are endorsed by other similar studies.

Limitations of the study

Although time was one of the major limiting factors, another issue of concern was the unstable political situation in Fiji. When I was just one month into my fieldwork, a military coup occurred (December 5th, 2006) and the reigns of government changed. There was a feeling of uncertainty in most public offices. Chief Executive Officers (CEOs), and some senior civil servants had been made redundant. A ‘clean up campaign’²⁵ and the militarisation of the public service offices sometimes made it difficult to obtain information. Access to the Prime Minister’s Office where the new Aid Unit is located was particularly difficult and things were not any easier when an intruder stole a laptop from the Prime Minister’s office.

I also encountered difficulties in collecting formal documents. The FATEP project that was implemented in the early 1990s although it was documented, the proper records were not well kept in the archival registry. There were no traces of official project documents such as the Project Design Document (PDD). Fortunately the Project Implementation Document (PID) was available through the kind

²⁵ The motive behind the December 5th 2006 coup takeover by commodore Frank Bainimarama was to eradicate corruption among public officers and the removal of the race-based policy of the former Qarase’s Soqosoqso ni Dtuavata ni Lewenivanua Party (SDL) government.

assistance of Ms Alowesi Logavatu, the senior lecturer in Social Science at FCAE. The shortfall was aggravated by the loss of intellectual knowledge as eighty percent (80%) of FATEP staff have either retired or left the institution for employment opportunities elsewhere (Nabobo, 2007 personal communication). With the BEMTUP initiative, there were some information in the LTCUP Design Document which referred to as background information. However, both projects were well documented in the FIEC report by Coxon (2000).

Conclusion

The strength and the quality of a research work is determined by the formulation of the relevance and the appropriateness of the methodologies and methods. In this study, choice of qualitative research methods to analyse data was justified. I consider this approach to be particularly relevant and appropriate for this research because it addresses and analyses the question of how to strengthen the effectiveness of aid delivery mechanisms to teacher education in Fiji. The qualitative approach allowed for the opportunity to precisely explore and explain the intricate issues and mechanisms of the aid delivery process. The PAR tools were particularly useful in allowing participants' critical voice/s to be heard. The data collected is reliable and appropriate to measure aid delivery in terms of (a) effectiveness, (b) efficiency, (c) responsiveness, (d) and sustainability and fits the conceptual framework presented in this chapter for mitigation.

Chapter 3

To give or not to give: Issues of Aid Effectiveness

Agreement on the Paris Declaration is a clear sign that the international community is determined to make 2005 a success for development. It shows that we want to live up to our commitments to do more and better in the fight against poverty.

(François Loos, 2005, French Minister Delegate for International Trade)

Introduction

In the previous chapter the conceptual framework which provides a platform for the use of participatory action research (PAR) methodology through the *talanoa* approach as a means of data gathering was introduced. The qualitative case study approach was used throughout the research.

This chapter highlights the global issues in the aid debate and how the effectiveness of aid delivery has been recognised as the critical matter underlying the Paris Declaration. The chapter also highlights how an unprecedented international consensus aims to make development cooperation more effective. This was articulated in the OECD/DAC (1996) document on the *Principles of Effective Development*. This consensus has led to significant changes being made to achieve progress in human development. There is a compelling need for shared development cooperation strategies. The choices involve relevance and effectiveness of aid programmes which will play a part in defining the societies' overall vision for the future (OECD, 1991). The concern is how development can help create a stable global order in which people can live secure and productive

lives. Similarly, attention is drawn to how aid can assist in avoiding conflict and chaos, address poverty and environmental devastation, and how development cooperation can adapt to the changing global context.

For government aid agencies and multilateral institutions, sustainable poverty reduction is now the overarching goal, and the MDGs provide a set of targets that have mobilised the international community. This chapter also looks at how international aid has been used as one of the most powerful weapons against poverty when it is delivered effectively. Effective delivery processes enable poor people and poor communities to overcome the health, education, and economic barriers that keep people in poverty (Aid Watch, 2004a; AusAID, 1997, 2002, 2003). It is argued that there should be greater coordination of aid goals and objectives to guide effective delivery.

Background of Aid

The origin of aid is a relatively recent phenomenon in the history of international politics (Gounder, 1995). According to Coxon and Tolley (2005), the origin of aid and aid programmes were closely linked to the theories of “development” which evolved after World War II and accompanied the process of decolonisation. Consequently the role of aid in promoting modernisation was underpinned by the establishment of an umbrella of institutions including the United Nations, the World Bank, and the International Monetary Fund (IMF), the latter two collectively known as the Bretton Woods²⁶ Institutions.

²⁶ The Bretton Woods Institutions are the World Bank, and the International Monetary Fund (IMF). They were set up at a meeting in Bretton Woods, New Hampshire, USA in July 1944 of forty-five countries and leading world economists to design the post-World War II economic order. Their aims were to help rebuild the shattered post war economy, to ease the reconstruction of Europe, to foster international trade and economic integration, and to promote international

These became a major influence in the delivery of aid from developed to developing countries.

Aid did not always play a positive role in supporting human development, partly because of the failure of aid recipients to make the most of what was offered, and partly because donors have allowed strategic considerations to override development concerns (Wolfensohn, 2001; Atakpu, 2004). Since World War II, there have been a series of major changes made to approaches taken by donors to achieve their goals. Aid in its contemporary form can be traced to 1946 immediately after the Second World War. Following the Bretton Woods agreement in 1944, the Marshall Plan²⁷ came into operation. The plan defined an approach to aid based on financial assistance for industrialisation when the USA funded the reconstruction of Western Europe (Robinson, 2007).

Burnell and Morrissey (2004) argued that aid brought into existence the notion of the “Third World” (also called the South). Within a North–South dichotomy, aid was set up in the context of a tense international situation of the late 1940s, involving the emergence of the “Cold War” between East and Western Europe. The context was also influenced by the break-up of old colonial empires and the evolution of the United Nations system (Robinson et.al, 2004). At this time aid had a strong political bias which functioned more for the

economic cooperation. The original Bretton Woods agreement also included plans for an International Trade Organisation (ITO) but these developed into the General Agreement on Trade and Tariffs (GATT) until the World Trade Organisation (WTO) was created in the early 1990s. (Hoy, 1998).

²⁷ The European Recovery Program, mooted by the United States, was administered by the Organisation for European Economic Cooperation (OEEC). The OEEC later evolved into the OECD. The Marshall Plan involved \$497 million in reconstruction loans from 1947 and \$13 billion by 1952 (Gounder, 1995).

donors' interests rather than recipients need (Tarte, 1998). However development aid recipients also had their own security and sovereignty concerns which they weighed against the costs and benefits of receiving aid (Tish and Wallace, 1994).

In the early 1950's developing countries, particularly those of Asia and Latin America became increasingly conscious of the need for external financial support. It was at the Commonwealth Ministers Conference held in Colombo and Sydney in 1950 that a proposal was tabled for a major development aid effort to be mounted in Asia. Out of this came the Colombo Plan²⁸ which targeted strategic aid largely to countries considered by the British Commonwealth and members of the South East Asia Treaty Organisation (SEATO) to be under threat of communist take-over. Aid was restricted to technical assistance to countries that were considered to share similar development needs. Assistance was provided on the basic understanding that recipient nations shared the economic and political objectives and motives of the donor countries (Trumbull and Wall 1994; Gounder, 1995). It was in the late 1950's that developed countries seriously began considering the establishment of the mechanisms for Official Development Assistance ²⁹ (ODA). Political tensions were rising particularly in the Far East, and poverty was identified as a threat to the international political system.

²⁸ The Colombo Plan was established in 1950 in Colombo by Commonwealth Ministers. The Colombo Plan involved substantial Australian assistance and also aid from New Zealand, Canada, and the United Kingdom to Asia and the Pacific (Gounder, 1995).

²⁹ ODA (Official development assistance), is the internationally-used term to describe official government expenditure on overseas aid and development assistance.

In 1963 the OECD established the Development Assistance Committee (DAC) as the key donor organisation. This institution has endured the changing environment of North-South relationships, and is now a durable feature of the international economy.

However two decades later, debt crisis in the 1980's stimulated a further shift in the role and nature of aid which was to prevent debt default by developing countries and to foster structural adjustment policies. Following the end of the Cold War, global aid began to decline in relation to private sector flows which increased rapidly, especially in a limited number of Asian and Latin American countries (Hunt & Morton, 2004). In the mid 1990s there was widespread pessimism about the future contribution of aid because of concerns over the fungibility and effectiveness of aid (Collier and Dollars, 2001). Despite huge aid receipts, the poverty of many developing countries deepened (Lee, 1977; Lindsey, 1988). However, Chintan (2004), and Lister (2007), argued that aid had no significant effect on growth and the major shift in aid delivery since the 1990s prompted a major rethinking of better delivery practices by donor agencies.

Aid defined

Aid as a phenomenon has been much analysed by academics, journalists and aid practitioners alike (Cassen, 1994; Burnell, 1997). However notwithstanding the criticisms, a recurrent theme of the last century has been that there is simply not enough aid and there needs to be more. Keen and Mahanty, 2004; Cohen, et.al 2004) argue that development assistance has been changing in recent years, from structured and centrally designed projects to collaborative and flexible regional and country programmes. The focus on aid has broadened from a predominant concern with economic growth to a concern for a

diverse array of issues, including poverty alleviation, technology transfer, good governance, and economic development (Bauer et.al, 1991; Aid Watch, 2004b). These trends raised new challenges.

Bauer and Yamey (2004) sum up the concept of foreign aid as:

the transfer of taxpayers' money to a distant government and to official international organisations. The use of the term aid to describe these transfers preempts criticism, obscure issues and prejudices results.

(Bauer and Yamey, 2004, p. 56)

Over the last 50 years, there have been remarkable changes in the understanding of aid limits and potentialities as an instrument of economic, social, and political change (Bauer and Yamey, 2004). In 1964, the United Nations Conference of Trade and Development (UNCTAD) meeting urged developed countries to devote one percent of their national income to aid (Gounder, 1995). Aid should be directed through multilateral channels, without political or economic strings, with an emphasis on the distribution aspect of equity (Forster, 1999). It was argued that this can only happen through successful collaboration between donors and developing countries. Both parties needed to be aware that development is a complex process depending on multiple factors (Gallus, 2004).

Nevertheless, according to Burnell (1997), in the 1960s an institutional definition of aid came to be accepted by the DAC. This committee adopted the 1969 *Recommendations on Financial Terms and Conditions* labeled and defined by ODA as the following:

- a) those flows to developing countries and multilateral institutions provided by official agencies, including state and local governments, or by the executive agencies, each of which meet the following criteria:

- b) it is administered with the promotion of economic development and the welfare of the developing countries as its main objectives, and
- c) it is concessional in character and contains a grant element of at least 25 per cent.

(Gounder, 1995, p. 5)

Today aid donors are under enormous pressure and scrutiny from tax payers because aid agencies have to be accountable and transparent. There is a need for greater accountability accompanied by an urgency for the value of money spent in the aid delivery process to be effective (Gravelle, 2002; Chand, 2004).

Role of Aid

The concept of aid to developing countries has been constantly redefined as the development goals and priorities of both donor and recipient countries evolve (UNDP, 1999). The extent to which countries are aid dependent varies considerably. According to Edo, (1986; Oyugi, 2004), the purpose of aid is to promote the overall development of recipient countries in terms of general economy, industry, and social wellbeing through the provision of material, direct financial support, improved infrastructure and technology transfer, and manpower development. In developing countries continuing shortfalls in savings have limited these economies' ability to fulfill their investment needs or generate enough foreign exchange to meet capital demands or pay for intermediate goods and imports (Hansen and Tarp, 2000). Aid has been used to partially cover such needs with increased economic growth, the generation of domestic savings could eventually replace the need for concessional aid (Burnside and Dollar; 2004). According to a DAC report (1996), it is suggested that both developing and industrialised countries should be

responsible for creating conditions conducive to generating adequate resources for developing countries and regional development mechanisms. However aid as a source of foreign exchange remains important and financial assistance given as grants and loans is supposed to stimulate domestic activities for which local currency is used to pay costs (Hall and Midgley, 1998).

According to Kulipossa and Manor (2007) there was an emphasis of aid on facilitating economic growth by reducing the gap between savings and available foreign exchange reserves. The debt crisis of the 1980's stimulated another shift in the role and the nature of aid; to prevent default on loans held by developing countries and to foster adjustment policies (Levy, 1987). Following the end of the Cold War, global aid began to decline from 1992 as private sector flows escalated to a number of Asian and Latin American Countries. During the 1990s, the human crisis in sub-Saharan Africa, and the consequences of the Asian financial crisis, escalated a growing criticism of the so-called "Washington Consensus" policies whereby the focus was to shift back to poverty reduction. That consensus was reinforced in March, 2002 when world leaders gathered in Monterrey, Mexico, and agreed to make aid one of the building blocks of the new "global partnership" for poverty reduction (World Bank, 2005).

Why Do Donors Give Aid?

Donor agencies have different motives for providing aid (Hill, 2004). For instance, the primary objective of the United States was to preserve its own territorial and political security (Hoy, 1998). USAID has distributed most American foreign aid, and trade generated from aid has more than offset initial costs. Between 1990 and 1995, exports to developing countries increased by \$98.7 billion, which

supported 1.9 million jobs in the United States (Hoy, 1998). Humanitarian concerns also support foreign aid. Such support is usually based on the moral principle that wealthy governments have an obligation to assist those in need beyond their national borders. Coxon and Tolley (2005) have argued that most developing countries were influenced by adopting modernisation theory as a means to convince leaders that aid would make a difference. The theory advocates the view that economic growth could be achieved through good economic policies, adopting western democracy, and promoting capitalism. These views played a leading role in the establishment of the World Bank and the International Monetary Fund (IMF). These institutions have remained a major influence on the delivery of aid from developed to developing countries (Bauer, 1991; Bergquist, 1993; Kurti et.al 2004).

Burnside and Dollar (2000) argued that aid is more effective in a situation in which there is a better policy environment to address the poverty issue. Consequently aid is more effective in high-poverty countries which adopt “poverty efficient” policies (Collier and Dollar, 2000; Hudson and Mosley, 2001). The purpose is not to constrain aid allocation to some rigid mechanistic formula, but to provide benchmarks which could help aid agencies think through the fraught but important issue of how a given amount of aid should be allocated among countries. In an analysis of the effect of aid on the growth process, Bauer et.al, (1991), argue that aid is more effective in the countries prone to severe external trade shocks.

In another perception of aid, Burnside and Dollar (2004) switch the focus from the effect of aid on growth to its impact on lowering the risk of large-scale civil conflict. They find that in some countries aid

can substantially reduce the risk of such conflict. Bates, et. al (1998) argued that the case for focusing on the reduction of conflict is much stronger than the role of aid in poverty reduction. They added that freedom from large-scale violence is a fundamental human goal: in traditional societies communities often prioritised security over poverty reduction, and choose to be poor if this reduced the risk of being attacked. Further, security is a global public good: the breakdown of order in one country provides a haven for crime and disease which respect no boundaries (Collier and Dollar, 2001; Hassall, 2008).

In summary, although there is no direct effect of aid on conflict risk, Collier and Dollar (2001) believe that there are four indirect effects, all favourable. Three of these depend upon policy: with reasonable policy in place, aid raises growth. This directly reduces conflict risk, cumulatively raises income, which further reduces conflict risk, and gradually changes the structure of the economy away from primary commodity dependence, which also reduces the risk of conflict. However the fourth effect, “Dutch disease”³⁰ does not depend upon policy. As economies grow through aid, they typically change their structure away from primary commodities (Collier and Dollar, 2001; 2001).

However, Bauer and Yamey (2004) argue that substantial aid has gone, and still goes, to governments at war with each other, to governments restricting the inflow of capital - the shortage of which is said to be grounds for aid - to governments spending lavishly on

³⁰ Dutch disease is the notion that the provision of foreign exchange through aid tends to appreciate the real exchange rate and so reduce the incentive to export. Aid directly reduces dependence upon primary commodity export, but to an extent raises income, and further reduces commodity dependence (Collier and Dollar, 2001).

obvious prestige projects, and to governments pursuing other policies which retard economic advance and harm the interests of their poorest citizens.

New Poverty Agenda

Since the mid 1990s, poverty reduction has been the central goal of most aid programmes (Collier and Dollar, 2001). A new construction on poverty reduction links the Millennium Development Goals, an international consensus on how to reduce poverty through the 'Poverty Reduction Strategy Papers'; a new set of instruments for delivering aid, and, underpinning the others, results-based management (Maxwell, 2003:5). This new construction has undoubted strengths. There are also cross-cutting risks: that targets will oversimplify, citizenship will be neglected, trade-offs and conflicts of interest will be obscured, macro-economic policy will be neglected, social sectors will be emphasised at the expense of growth policies, and commitment to partnership will degrade into a form of covert conditionality (Robinson, 2000). These risks are not immutable, however. A way forward is via the advocacy of the Paris Declaration and the adoption of the Principles of Pacific Aid Effectiveness (PPAE) by the Pacific Island countries (Figure 3). The Paris Declaration is discussed immediately below and the PPAE should be seen as a document which applies the Paris Declaration to a regional context.

Paris Declaration

Background

The Paris Declaration on Aid Effectiveness or the Paris Declaration in 2005 is a historical agreement between donors and recipient partner

governments. It is an important, independent, cross-country evaluation of aid and presents a case for aid to be made more effective. It is an expression of the general consensus amongst the international community on the direction that should be followed to reform aid delivery, and thereby to achieve better results (OECD and World Bank, 2005; African Development Bank, and World Bank, 2005). It reflects the five mutually reinforcing principles grounded on the values of international consensus on five principles of effective development - local ownership, harmonisation, alignment, results, and mutual accountability (Figure 5) and provides targets, indicators, and strong mechanisms for mutual accountability (Appendix III). The Paris Declaration may be viewed as a type of contract which, while it is not legally binding, works on a moral imperative which obliges its signatories to act on the promises they have made.

On 2 March, 2005, over one hundred donor and developing countries agreed in Paris to undertake reforms in the way they do business and to enshrine in the Paris Declaration agreed-upon principles of aid effectiveness. As a result the Paris Declaration enshrines the five principles and 56 partnership commitments to improve the quality of aid. It lays down 12 indicators to provide a measurable and evidence-based way to track progress against aid effectiveness objectives and sets targets for 11 of the indicators (Appendix III) for the year 2010 (OECD and World Bank, 2005). According to James Wolfensohn, the President of the World Bank (2005):

Progress has been made. But we have to move faster. We don't need more analysis. We know what needs to be done. With the Paris Declaration, we have the blueprint to do it.³¹

³¹ http://www.oecd.org/departement/0,3355,en_2649_34447_1_1_1_1_1,00.html (9 November, 2007).

Figure 5 - Principles of Aid Effectiveness

The Five Principles of Aid Effectiveness	
Principle 1	Ownership
Partner countries exercise effective leadership over their development policies, and strategies and co-ordinate development actions. Development countries will exercise effective leadership over their development policies, strategies and co-ordination development efforts. Donors' are responsible for supporting and enabling developing countries ownership by respecting their policies and helping strengthening their capacity to implement them (paragraph 14 and 15 of the Paris Declaration).	
Principle 2	Alignment
Donors base their overall support on partner countries' national development strategies, institutions and procedures. Donors will base their overall support on partner countries' national development strategies, institutions and procedures. For example, this means that donor will draw conditions wherever possible from a devolving country government's development strategy, instead of imposing multiple conditions based on other agendas (para.16).	
Principle 3	Harmonisation
Donors actions are more harmonised, transparent and collectively effective. Donors aim to be more harmonised, collectively effective and less burdensome especially on the countries, such as fragile states, which have weak administration capacities. This means, for instance, establishing common arrangements at country level for planning, funding and implementing development programmes (para. 32).	
Principle 4	Managing for Results
Managing resources and improving decision-making for results. Both donors and partner countries will manage resources and improve decision-making for results. Donors should fully support developing countries efforts in implementing performance assessment frameworks that measures progress against key elements if national development strategies (para. 43-46).	
Principle 5	Mutual Accountability
Donors and partners are accountable for development results. Donors and developing countries pledge that they will hold each mutual accountability for development results as outlined in the aid effectiveness pyramid.	

Source: Adapted from *Development Co-operation Report* (2005) Vol.7, No.1

http://www.oecd.org/departement/0,3355,en_2649_34447_1_1_1_1_1,00.html (9 November, 2007)

The Paris Declaration (OECD and World Bank, 2005) also moved the effectiveness agenda beyond the general consensus reached in

previous agreements at a high level forum in Rome in 2003. It was attended by development officials from 91 countries, 26 donor organisations and partner countries, and civil societies and private sector representatives (Appendix V). The Paris Declaration went beyond a statement of general principles and laid a practical, action-oriented roadmap to improve the quality of aid and its impact on development. According to DAC (2005) there are three reasons why the Paris Declaration will make a significant difference to the impact of aid:

- i) *The Paris Declaration goes beyond previous agreements.*

More than a statement of general principles, the Paris Declaration lays down a practical, action-orientated roadmap to improve the quality of aid and its impact on development. The 56 partnership commitments are organised around the five key principles: ownership, alignment, harmonisation, managing for results, and mutual accountability.

- ii) *Twelve indicators to monitor progress in achieving results.*

The twelve indicators (Appendix 5) of aid effectiveness were developed as a way of tracking and encouraging progress against the broader set of partnership commitments. Targets for the year 2010 have been set for 11 of the indicators and are designed to encourage progress at the global level among the countries and organisations adhering to the Paris Declaration.

- iii) *The Paris Declaration creates stronger mechanisms for accountability.*

The Paris Declaration promotes a model of partnership that improves transparency and accountability on the use of development resources. It recognises that for aid to become truly effective, stronger and more balanced, accountability mechanisms are required at different levels. At the international level, the Paris Declaration constitutes a mechanism which donors and recipients of aid are held mutually accountable to each other and

compliance in meeting the commitments will be publicly monitored. At the country level, the Paris Declaration encourages donors and partners to jointly assess mutual progress in implementing agreed commitments on aid effectiveness by making best use of local mechanisms.

Source: www.oecd.org/dac/effectiveness 15 November. 2007

At present, accountability requirements are often more demanding on developing countries than donors, yet aid is more effective when partner countries exercise strong and effective leadership over their development policies and strategies. Consequently developing countries which exercise strong and effective leadership over their development policies and strategies have realised the fundamental tenet underpinning the Paris Declaration (OECD- DAC, 1996).

Through the Paris Declaration, both donors and recipient countries have committed to work together to enhance development and aid effectiveness (African Development Bank and World Bank, 2005). The Declaration provided a well defined roadmap for increasing development effectiveness by enhancing partnership commitments, aligning donor support to recipient (partner) countries' development strategies, harmonising donor actions, managing and implementing aid/development resources with the focus on development results, and improving mutual accountability for development results (Wood, et.al (2008). It was agreed by both donors and partner countries to set twelve indicators and corresponding targets are to be achieved by 2010 and to monitor the progress in 2006 and 2008 (African Development Bank and World Bank, 2005). There are expectations and conditions which donor countries have made in their commitments, such as:

- Link country programming and resources to results and align them with effective recipient country performance assessment frameworks, refraining from requesting the introduction of performance indicators that are not consistent with the recipients' national development strategies.
- Work with recipient countries to rely, as far as possible, on recipient countries' result oriented reporting and monitoring frameworks.
- Harmonize their monitoring and reporting requirements and, until they can rely more extensively on recipient countries to maximum extent possible on joint formats for periodic reporting.

(African Development Bank and World Bank, 2005, p. 5)

Similarly the recipient countries have their commitments through the following means:

- Strengthening the linkage between national development strategies and the annual budget processes.
- Endeavour to establish results-oriented reporting and assessment frameworks that monitor progress against the key dimensions of national development strategies and that tracks a manageable number of indicators for which data are cost-effectively available.

(African Development Bank, and World Bank, 2005, p. 5)

Experiences across a wide range of countries have shown that there is still a long way to go in realising these aspirations (Wood et.al, 2008). The observance and following of best practice are very demanding but critical to better performance. At the Rome High Level Forum (HLF1) on harmonisation in 2003, the following good practices were adopted:

- Multi-year programming of aid – Donors wherever possible, should program their aid over a multi-year time frame that is consistent with the financial planning horizon of the recipient government, and are transparent about both the circumstances under which aid flow. The combination of longer

term and more predictable finance enables recipient governments to have more trust in the reliability of donor finance. This is necessary to plan increases in service delivery capacity, and facilitates macroeconomic management.

- Provide full information on aid flows - Donors should provide governments with full information on aid flows. This should be done regularly and in a timely manner. This enables governments to integrate aid into microeconomic and budgetary management and to publish details of aid received.

(OECD, 2005, p. 171)

The Accra High Level Forum

Recently the Third High Level Forum on Aid Effectiveness (HLF3) was hosted in Accra by the Government of Ghana on 2-4 September, 2008. The forum has built on several previous high level international meetings. It played host to the biggest ever international meeting devoted entirely to the subject of aid. Over 100 countries, heads of bilateral and multilateral development agencies, donor organisations, and civil society organisations from around the world gathered and focused principally on harmonisation and alignment; two of the most notable issues highlighted in 2003 Rome HLF 1. The common objective which emerged was a commitment to help developing countries and marginalised people in their fight against poverty by making aid more transparent, accountable, and results-oriented.

The primary objective of the HLF3 Accra meeting was to take stock and review the progress made in implementing the Paris Declaration and also broaden and deepen the dialogue on aid effectiveness by giving ample space and voice to partner countries and newer actors (such as civil society and emerging donors). Attention was given to the

action needed and bottlenecks to overcome in order to make progress in improving aid effectiveness for 2010 and beyond (OECD and World Bank, 2005). The forum also emphasised the need to broaden the dialogue to newer actors, chart a course for continuing international action on aid effectiveness consistent with the relative strength of donors' development assistance, and promote development cooperation so that specific undertakings would achieve their stated goals and objectives (Isenman and Ehrenpreis. 2003).

The Accra Agenda for Action (AAA), adopted in Accra on September 4, reflects the international commitment to support the reforms needed to accelerate an effective use of development assistance and helps ensure the achievement of the MDGs by 2015. The AAA through consultation and negotiations among countries and development partners, focuses the aid effectiveness agenda on the main technical, institutional, and political challenges to full implementation of the Paris principles. However the AAA needs to be adapted to different country circumstances which include the middle-income countries, small states, and countries in situations of fragility. These country-based action plans, with active support from donors, set out time-bound and monitorable proposals to implement the Paris Declaration and the AAA. They set out how donors and partner countries plan to make progress in aid effectiveness with the following agreed key points:

Predictability – developing countries will strengthen the linkages between public expenditures and results, and donors will provide 3- to 5-year forward information on their planned aid to partner countries.

Ownership – developing country governments will engage more with parliaments and civil society organizations.

Country systems – partner country systems will be used to deliver aid as the first option, rather than donor systems, and donors will share their plans on increasing use of country systems.

Conditionality – donors will switch from reliance on prescriptive conditions about how and when aid money is spent to conditions based on the developing country's own development objectives.

Untying – donors will elaborate individual plans to further untie their aid.

Aid fragmentation – donors agree to avoid creating new aid channels, and donors and countries will work on country-led division of labor.

Partnerships – all actors are encouraged to use the Paris Declaration principles, and the value of South-South cooperation is welcomed.

Transparency – donors and countries will step up efforts to have mutual assessment reviews in place by 2010. These will involve stronger parliamentary and citizen engagement and will be complemented with credible independent evidence.

www.undp.org/mdtf/docs/Accra-Agenda-for-Action.pdf

However the AAA was subject to criticism. A parallel meeting at Accra of the civil society organisation was highly critical of the AAA. Like the Women's Forum, they agreed on a joint statement summarising their concerns. The statement includes a number of "minimum" demands: the definition of "ownership" must be more inclusive, tied aid must be ended, and much greater efforts must be made on reforming conditionality. Most importantly, the statement highlighted that aid is only one factor – and often not the most important one – in advancing development. However it will continue to be possible for effective aid delivery as discussed below within the parameter of mutual policies of

both donor interests and recipients' needs are addressed within the power relation consensus.

Aid Effectiveness

According to (Chauvet and Collier, 2006) there was increasing awareness among donors during the 1990s. Following the recommendations of the Pearson Commission in 1970 the UN agreed to a quantitative target for volume of aid where international donors committed to allocate 0.7% of their Gross National Product (GNP) for to international development by 1980 (Carbone, 2007). Such a move would have helped each partner country meet the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) by 2015. Although some donors are already close to or have exceeded this average like Denmark, Canada, Finland and West Germany, most (such as New Zealand) are still far below and unlikely to meet the target by this date (Carbone, 2007). However the debate on aid effectiveness has been important to refine the critical path to increase and bring its outcomes to the attention of policy makers (Fox, 2004). This is particularly important, because in order to achieve the MDGs it is agreed that there is a need to secure "more and better aid" (DFID, 2000). By the same token, through the emerging consensus on aid effectiveness, the OECD highlighted some of the benchmarks of effective aid such as the importance of aid that is country owned, aligned, and harmonized; focused on the poorest; predictable and untied; delivered through effective institutions; and with the focus on results not inputs. Donors should also use minimal conditions, strengthen accountability and participation, and ensure their own policies are consistent with recipient countries' poverty strategies. There is pressure too, to demonstrate that aid is working

as DFID³² and others seek higher volumes of aid, because like other donors, DFID is accountable to its taxpayers and must be responsive to these pressures. In the same way, recipient countries and developing country governments are accountable to their own citizens for the effective use of aid resources.

There are other forms of development cooperation in the form of trade, flexible distance learning (DFL), labour markets, and security. However the question of the complexity of the process involved is raised: this is true of the donors in respect of the grounds on which aid is given and the objectives and the forms in which it is offered. It is true of the recipients in respect of the reasons why they seek help and the manner in which they use it (Elikana and Mapunjo, 2004).

Elikana and Mapunjo (2004) further add that during the 1980's and the early 1990's aid became increasingly exposed to criticism on how to bring about desired results. Since then, there have been initiatives both at national level and international level with a view to making aid more effective and efficient. The awareness of the cost of aid impelled the development community to give greater attention to finding ways to work more effectively together. Higher aid volumes and the demand for increased aid effectiveness have been fundamental issues as the world becomes more aware of the seriousness and the growing dimensions of development challenges. The development community has realised that more and better aid is needed for greater development impact (OECD & World Bank, 2005).

³² DFID signed up to a series of commitments concerning harmonisation at the High Level Forum on Aid Effectiveness in Paris (March, 2005). Now the pressure is on to perform against a set of concrete indicators. A separate set of principles have been agreed to in the DAC for fragile states through its bilateral aid programs with multilateral partners.

In the late 1990's, Burnside and Dollar (1997, 2000) presented new findings arguing that aid was in fact effective and had increased growth in developing countries with sound policies, but had less or no effect in those countries where the quality of institutions and policy was poor. As a result, Collier and Dollar (2001; 2002) argued, aid must be directed to poor countries with sound policies. This became an important consideration. The notion that aid is effective within good policy environments soon become prevalent and has been followed up by many multilateral donors such as the World Bank (Kuisma, 2005). However, as Fox (2004) has reiterated, there is a need to further refine the agenda and define the critical path to increase aid effectiveness and bring the outcome to the attention of policy makers. The promotion of transparency of aid delivery also draws attention to the challenge of minimising corruption and questionable behaviour (Burnell, 1997; Barr, 2007; Larmour, 2005).

Alternatively, Elikana and Mapunjo (2004) referred to a number of other forums which have advocated some developments which benefited the recipient needs. Among these were the Helleiner study, the new "Nomadic-Tanzanian development Partnership", ECD's DAC-shaping the 21st Century", "The Tokyo International Conference on African Development (TICAD II)", "The Tokyo agenda", "The Stockholm Workshop on making Partnerships work on the ground", "The New Partnership for African development" (NEPAD), "Monterrey Consensus" (2002), and "The Rome Declaration" (2002). They all emphasise the following initiatives:

- Promoting local ownership and leadership
- Promoting partnership
- Improving aid coordination and administrative mechanisms
- Improving transparency, accountability, and predictability of aid

- Strengthening capacity of aid recipient governments
- Capacity strengthening of external resource management
- Harmonising donor policies and procedures.

(Elikana and Mapunjo, 2004, p. 74)

Since the adoption of Helleiner's recommendations, there has been increased focus on the identification and the implementation of measures that can make development assistance more effective. Elikana and Mapunjo (2004) noted that one of the frameworks for strengthening aid/donor coordination, harmonisation, national ownership of development process and management was developed by the Tanzanian Assistance Strategy (TAS)³³, which was launched in 2002. It is now widely agreed, that in order to improve the effectiveness of aid there is an urgent need to improve aid coordination, promote harmonisation of systems, and strengthen government ownership of the development processes (Gavas, 2004). This can be achieved through the continued strengthening of partnership by undertaking common work programmes and engaging in joint policy dialogue (Robinson, et. al, 2000). It includes the provision of opportunities to demonstrate international best practices with reference to aid effectiveness as alluded to in the framework outlined below:

Framework for Best Practices for Aid Effectiveness

- Government leadership in development policy priorities, strategic frameworks, and institutionalised cooperation mechanisms in various areas and sectors.

³³ TAS provides a broad outline of best practices for Tanzania and her development partners in development cooperation in 2002/03 as the practical steps that government and government partners will follow in order to implement TAS in the short and medium term (Reality of Aid, 2004)

- Government involves civil society and the private sector in developing national policies, strategies, and priorities.
- Government prioritises and rationalises development expenditures in line with stated priorities and resource availability.
- Integration of external resources into the strategic expenditure framework.
- Integration of reporting and accountability systems.
- Donor policies complement domestic capacity building.
- Firm ODA commitments are made for longer time periods.
- Improvement in public financial management by government.
- Government to create an appropriate national accountability system for public expenditure.
- Ministries, regions, and districts receive clean audit reports from the auditor General.
- Transparency in reporting accountability at the central and local levels.

(Elikana and Mapunjo, 2004, p. 76)

Elikana and Mapunjo (2004) further categorised issues raised in the framework into four areas which require urgent attention and represent the greatest challenge in terms of reducing the burden of transactional costs, enhancing efficiency, and promoting harmonisation. These are: (i) improve the predictability of external resources; (ii) increase aid flows captured in the government system; (iii) promote government leadership of the policy process and rationalising processes, and (iv) improve national capacities in aid coordination and external resource management.

Keen and Mahanty (2004) also argued that firstly a flexible approach to aid is required for feedback mechanisms to be integrated into aid management to ensure that the knowledge generated through experience is evaluated and used adaptively throughout an

intervention. Secondly, a collaborative and participatory approach to development requires engagement and knowledge sharing among partners. The evaluation process therefore must address the information needs of the recipients, rather than being geared solely to the accountability concern of aid donors. Thirdly, given the expanded scope of aid, the evaluation process needs to address several dimensions, including accountability, management, and learning to generate knowledge valuable for the design and implementation of interventions, and sustaining the development process.

Measuring the overall effectiveness of aid and its impacts is not easy because projects differ in many aspects (Sanga, 2005c). Projects are funded differently, and are delivered at various levels with different time durations and degrees of complexity. However, McGillivray and Feeny (2004) believe that aid is effective in promoting growth and, by implication, poverty reduction. To improve the effectiveness of aid transfer and promoting growth the following are the criteria which countries should attain to qualify for aid allocation:

- Low per capita income, large number of people living in poverty and good policies ;
- Large number of poor people who are in post-conflict adjustment situation;
- Structural vulnerability;
- Democratic and politically stable regimes; with a record of good governance.

(McGillivray & Feeny, 2004, p. 23)

In meeting these criteria, the ultimate objective of poverty reduction will be achieved. The objectives and interests of the donor agencies and recipient governments which are rarely achieved will fuel growth through partnership (Killick, 2004).

Investing in Aid Effectiveness

Improving the quality of aid assistance cannot be achieved in isolation and donors must invest in their own capacity to work with their partners if they are to genuinely understand what aid effectiveness means and to achieve it (Chapman, 2004). Donors themselves must be willing to invest in significant organisational change in order to manage their aid funding according to international good practices. The challenge remains for the donors to consider more flexible and stable funding practices if they are to achieve their stated aims of increasing aid effectiveness (Rooy and Robinson, 1998).

OECD donors have become increasingly concerned with the growth of donor requirements and processes for preparing, delivering, and monitoring aid. These impose an unproductive transaction cost and draw down on the limited capacity of partner countries. The donor community is aware of:

partner country's concern that the donors' practices do not always fit in well with national development priorities and systems, including their budget program, project planning cycles and public expenditure and financial management systems.

(OECD, 1998, p. 10)

The donor community recognises that these issues require urgent coordinated and sustained action to improve the effectiveness of aid on the ground. The donor community also attaches:

high importance to partner countries' assuming a stronger leadership role in the coordination of development assistance, and to assist in building their capacity to do so. Partner countries on their part have to undertake necessary reforms to enable progressive reliance by the donors on their systems as they adopt international principles or standards and apply good practices. The key element that will guide this work is

the country-based approach that emphasises country ownership and government leadership, includes capacity building, recognises diverse aid modalities (project sector approaches, and budget or balance of payment support), and engages civil society including the private sector.

(OECD, 1998, p. 10)

Building on the work of various OECD working groups and on country experience, including recent developing country initiatives, donor countries have recently committed to the following activities to enhance donor harmonisation:

- Development assistance needs to be delivered in accordance with partner country priorities, including poverty reduction strategies, and similar approaches,
- harmonisation efforts are adapted to the country context,
- donor institutions' and countries' policies, procedures, and practices to facilitate harmonisation need to reduce donor missions, reviews, through reporting streamline conditionalities, and
- simplify and harmonise documentation.

(OECD, 1991, p 7)

The importance of good practice standards or principles in development assistance delivery is crucial. All aid management stakeholders need to take into account specific country circumstances to understand the mechanisms of the aid processes and the skills to manage and distribute aid effectively. Some of the good practice principles or standards, including alignment with national budget cycles and national poverty reduction strategy reviews, should be used in the effective delivery of such assistance.

Ward (2003) emphasises the importance of the harmonisation activities for improving aid effectiveness and eliminating poverty. It is very clear from the experience of development to date that the mechanisms of aid delivery have a direct bearing on aid effectiveness; this is particularly true in the case of educational aid in the Pacific (Cole, 2002). The underpinning issue is the enhancement of good practice principles or standards, which include alignment with national budget cycles through national poverty reduction strategies, should be used to deliver assistance effectively (Carter, et.al, 2001).

According to the outcome of the recent commitments made at the G8 summit at Gleneagles, the UN Millennium Summit, and the EU, the amount of aid to Less Developed Countries (LDCs) was (until the recent expected economic crisis took hold) planned to increase by nearly 60% (about an additional USD \$50 billion) by 2010 (African Development Bank & World Bank, 2005). However, aid increases alone will not in the absence of major improvement in the quality of aid help reduce poverty. This requires ambitious reforms in the aid system. The donors could do a much better job of delivering aid effectively, but if aid is to result in lasting economic growth and better welfare in recipient countries, the developing countries themselves should be prepared to improve the way they manage aid.

Chapman (2004) also believes that donors must be willing to commit to a process of mutual accountability with their partner governments and relinquish funding control and to accept and respond to donor performance through monitoring by recipient government as readily as they themselves impose performance assessment requirements. This will enhance genuine ownership. On the whole, demands for increased aid effectiveness cannot be met without an appropriate level of resources (Collier, 2002). The process and the framework have to

be understood if aid is to be of operational value. Further to this, Roche and Kelly (2003) argue that if donors are not prepared to cover the full cost of effective and appropriate measurement processes, then they must question whether they should continue to impose them. Like all relationships there will be ups and downs, but there should be a willingness to keep channels open for dialogue and discussion which in turn grant “local ownership” and ensure a greater degree of sustainability (Naidu, 2006).

Partnership and Governance

In all these discussions on aid effectiveness, the principle of partnership is an underlying factor yet it remains poorly defined. The Paris Declaration and the policies which have flowed from it have used the rhetoric of recipient ‘ownership’ and ‘alignment’, which should suggest a strong willingness by donors to recognize the active role to be played by recipient agencies, especially government. On the surface, it draws upon some of the more populist conceptions of participatory development espoused by Chambers (1989) and others (Brohman 1996). Yet the practice seems instead to suggest a rather more donor-led approach (Overton and Storey (2004). Buiter (2007) is critical of the way the ownership principle has been undermined and one of the ways in which this is happening is the way the so-called ‘good governance’ agenda is being pushed by donors on recipients through new aid conditionalities. This has forced recipients to change the way their governance systems have operated, not only through apparent aspects such as consultation and human rights but, more covertly, through the enforced adoption of new financial management systems.

However, this move to change recipient governance systems and policies through the guise of ‘partnership’ seems to focus only on

recipients and not on donors. Pronk (2004) argues that whether we are talking about the quantity of aid or the quality of recipient's policy, what matters is the overall quality of aid. In trying to attain this quality, good donor governance is essential. Aid should not result in foreign debt that might never be repaid by a recipient country and it should be adapted to the technical institutions of the country. Pronk (2004), further argues that good governance on the side of the donor should accompany good governance on the side of the recipient to ensure aid effectiveness. Burnside and Dollar (1977) also found that on the margin, when good policies had been rewarded with aid, donor interests were much more important in explaining aid allocation. When we are confronted with the question: what constitutes a good policy or good governance and who determines this?, Mosley (1999:15) argues that 'good policy' and 'bad policy' should be seen as relative to a country's resources and state of development, and not absolute. Aid policy, like development policy, needs to avoid reliance of one standard but inflexible package of good economic policies that will ensure success whenever implemented. Another important factor is the credibility of both donor and recipient. According to Dijkstra (2008), if economic growth is high, donor credibility will improve since the advice has been good; recipient credibility will also improve since the policies appear to have been good.

There is fairly general acknowledgement that is difficult to measure the level of good governance (Hout, 2004). In the first place, it is difficult to capture such complex matters as the quality of a country's governance in one or even a few indicators. However this study draws on the six indicators defined by Kaufmann et. al, (1999:7-8) as:

- *Voice and accountability*: the extent to which citizens of a country are able to participate in the selection of government,

- *Political stability /lack of violence*: the likelihood that government in power will be will be destabilised or overthrown by possibly unconstitutional means;
- *Government effectiveness*: the quality of public provision, the quality of bureaucracy, the competence of civil servants, the independence of the civil service from political pressures and the credibility of the government's commitment to policies;
- *Regulatory burden*: the incidence of market-unfriendly policies such as price control or inadequate bank supervision, and the burdens imposed by excessive regulation in areas such as trade and business development;
- *Rule of law*: the extent to which agents have confidence in and abide by the rule of society, and;
- *Graft*: the extent to which power is used for private gain (corruption).

If the six above mentioned indicators are observed, they will be become the yardsticks for effectiveness of aid delivery or any development interventions. These indicators are discussed in various ways in the later chapters of the thesis. Furthermore, an appreciation of the realities, needs and capabilities of recipient systems must be at the forefront of aid negotiations so that real partnership, in line with the letter of the Paris Declaration, is recognized and encouraged. This must involve a shift away from uniform and top-down strategies of donors applying a 'one size fits all' approach to aid delivery to approaches which examine the aid governance systems of both donors and recipients and seek appropriate and sustainable development strategies.

Conclusion

The aid debate illustrates that both "donor interests" and "recipient needs" must be addressed and accommodated. This requires mutual consensus at the outset of the aid negotiation process. This chapter highlights the global perspective of aid effectiveness as defined in the Paris Declaration which provides a benchmark for aid donors and a guide to what should be taken into account as a part of aid delivery designed to address poverty eradication in developing countries.

It is important that the Paris Declaration be genuinely put into practice and implemented in its true spirit. The five key principles, reform objectives, and targets underline the need to: promote local ownership; align developing and developed country-driven priorities; make use of local systems; harmonise donor efforts; and manage and focus on results and mutual accountability. Though there is no “one size fits all”, any aid delivery process should be addressed according to the unique environment and circumstances for effective delivery particularly in the translation of the Principles of Pacific Aid Effectiveness by the Pacific Island countries. The next chapter looks at the impact of aid, in particular AusAID in the Pacific region with specific emphasis on Fiji’s education development of primary schools and teacher training institutions.

Chapter 4

Aid situation: Australia, Fiji and the Pacific

The relationship-focused forms of development would seek to build trust, reciprocity and communication that would provide a sound basis on which to tackle a wide range of development in the future. They would require a significant shift, mostly in the attitudes and practices of donor agencies, for they would involve seeking outcomes that are more long term and intangible (for example building social rather physical capital), they would ask donors to identify and communicate explicitly their motives and objectives, (both personal and institutional) and they would involve some costly and open-ended efforts to interact over time with communities at the local level.

(Overton and Storey, 2004, p. 44)

Introduction

The previous chapter outlined global aid perspectives and how the Paris Declaration sets a new template for aid implementation. This chapter discusses how in recent years a convergence has taken place in international development goals, with a parallel growing interest in getting aid donors to demonstrate more effectively the purpose and value of their interventions. According to McDonald (2005) development aid is important to many nations throughout the world but is particularly important for smaller nations to strengthen their financial status in their development capacity by contributing to their financial situation. Under the Pacific Principles of Aid Effectiveness (PPAE) there is keen interest for donor and recipient countries to work together towards better aid alignment and harmonisation. This chapter addresses issues arising out of how Australia, through

AusAID, assists the Pacific region in general and Fiji in particular. There is a particular emphasis on how educational aid to Fiji focuses on promoting and improving the lives of people. This is a central theme that lies in the heart of aid development effectiveness. As the Hon, Kathy Sullivan, an Australian Member of Parliament, has said, “I am certain that the best weapon against poverty is education” (Sullivan, 1999, p. 86). She further stated that being able to read and write opens new horizons for children and parents, their villages, and society. It creates wealth and well-being. It lays the foundation for democracy and, most importantly, it promotes self-reliance which will in turn give people a chance to improve their own world and to control their own future.

The Aid Situation in the Pacific

Within the past four decades foreign aid has become an increasingly important part of Third World economies (Gounder, 1995). For Pacific Island countries, former colonial rulers played a significant role through aid assistance and supported them and to translate additional resources into beneficial development outcomes (Edo, 1986; Edwards and Humes (1996). The process of decolonisation was generally peaceful and the Pacific Island states retained their close ties with colonizing countries (Tarte, 1998). According to Sanga (2003), development aid has long been a feature of modernisation in the PICs and educational aid has been a big business. However, the effectiveness of aid in the Pacific Islands region has been increasingly debated. The essentially rural subsistence economy which dominated the economies prior to and during much of the colonial period has weakened under the pervasive influence of globalisation (Cole, 2004). At the time of independence, aspirations for a consumer-orientated

lifestyle were relatively modest and the investment in infrastructure was limited while the economy was dominated by profit -orientated foreign interests.

The strategic location of South Pacific countries initially worked in their favour as colonial rulers helped them to develop physical infrastructure as well as legal administrative systems (Graham, 2008). This interest was also extended to promote compatible social beliefs and structures. As part of their wish to maintain regional stability, and to promote trade through open market and trade liberalisation policies, it was seen to be in the interests of developed countries in the Pacific, such as Australia and New Zealand, to support Fiji and other micro states. Greater emphasis was placed on effective aid delivery and funding which were extended and included as part of the “Pacific Plan”³⁴; a Pacific agreement completed in 2001 which was endorsed by the Pacific Island Forum and built upon the Pacific Island Countries Trade Agreement (PICTA) and the Pacific Agreement on Closer Economic Relations (PACER). These agreements were intended to provide stepping stones to allow Pacific Island Countries (PICs) to gradually become part of a single market and become integrated into the international economy (Barr, 2004).

Most of the ODA to the Pacific comes not in the form of cash grants but tied to specific projects (Guy, 2000). For most Pacific countries, the goals remain as self-reliance and economic independence,

³⁴ The Pacific Plan is a document which was endorsed by the Pacific Islands Forum meeting in October, 2005. It is the result of the work undertaken by the Pacific Plan Task Force with oversight by a core group of Leaders. It captures broad-based feedback from member countries and other stakeholders (including non state bodies and development partners). The focus of the Plan is to strengthen regional cooperation and integration and to respond to the many challenges facing Pacific island countries. The Plan is built on four pillars that are geared to enhancing economic development, sustainable development, good governance, and security for the Pacific through regionalism. [http: www.forumsec.org](http://www.forumsec.org)

however countries such as Tuvalu, the Marshall Islands, Niue, and the Federal States of Micronesia, receive more aid than their gross domestic product (GDP). According to Naidu (2005), over the past two decades PICs have experienced stagnating and declining rates of economic growth and the high development assistance ratio per capita has not changed for the better (see Table 1).

Table 1
Pacific Island Economic Summary

	Population (2001)	GNI per capita (USD, 2001)	Aid per capita (USD, 1982-2001 average)	Average growth of real income per capita (1982-2001)
American Samoa	70,000	_a	n.a.	n.a.
Cook Islands	18,000	4,272b	n.a.	n.a.
Federal States of Micronesia	120,000	2,150	802	-0.15%
Fiji	817,000	2,150	56	0.74%
French Polynesia	237,000	_c	1,517	1.58%
Kiribati	93,000	830	223	0.05%
Marshall Islands	53,000	2,190	1,016	0.44%
Nauru	12,700	2,830	n.a.	n.a.
New Caledonia	216,000	n.a.c	1,642	1.95%
Niue	1,900	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
Northern Mariana Islands	80,000	n.a.c	1,779	1.30%
Palau	20,000	6,780	n.a.	n.a.
Papua New Guinea	5,253,000	580	80	0.50%
Samoa	174,000	1,490	213	1.27%
Solomon Islands	431,000	590	129	-0.17%
Tokelau	1,500	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
Tonga	101,000	1530	214	2.06%
Tuvalu	10,000	1,560b	n.a.	n.a.
Vanuatu	201,000	1,050	237	-0.01%

a- Estimates to be upper-middle income (\$2,976-9,205). b-GDP per capita. c- Estimated to be high income (\$9,206 or more) n.a. Not Available. (World Bank, 2003)

(Brindley, 2004, p. 3)

When these figures are compared to the rest of the developing world, - which receives an average of USD 53 per capita in aid - it is obvious that some parts of the Pacific receive a disproportionately large amount of assistance (Brindley, 2004).

Dependence and subordination have played and will continue to play a significant role in the Pacific especially through the “MIRAB”³⁵ process first defined by Bertram and Watters (1985). The model is particularly pertinent to island countries with small economies such as the Cook Islands, Niue, Tokelau, Tuvalu, and Kiribati. These island countries are heavily reliant on remittances and rely on the government as the biggest employer - although it may not be viable for the government to continue to be the largest employer. Other island states that fall into in this category include the Federal States of Micronesia and the Marshall Islands. However the MIRAB model may not be generally applicable to all Pacific Islands, especially to the Melanesian group where nearly seven million of the eight million Pacific islanders reside (Naidu, 2006).

Such dependence on aid, such as that found in MIRAB economies, has received critical attention. Bauer (1991), for instance, argues that with smaller infrastructure, inter-governmental subsidies made through foreign aid inhibit good planning rather than promote either development or poverty alleviation and therefore should be terminated. This position is also supported by Helen Hughes (2003) who maintains that aid has failed the Pacific and that it has not resulted in high quality and sustainable development. Hughes (2003) has argued that despite the high potential of agricultural land, forest, marine and mineral resources, and tourism, development has failed

³⁵ The MIRAB is the dependence of PICs on migration (MI), remittances (R), aid (A), and large bureaucracy (B) for employment.

because inappropriate policies have been followed. Aid has had a negative impact on income.

There is little agreement between critics of aid donors who argue that aid in the Pacific has largely failed to achieve targets because the way it is managed by donors and the pro-donor analysts who emphasise the shortcomings of recipient institutions (corruption and misappropriation) (Hayter and Watson, 1985; Gounder, 1995; Lappe et. al., 1980; Seers and Myrdal, 1982). Hughes (2003) is quite adamant; Australian aid to PNG has failed because of corruption and misappropriation as a result of negative fungibility³⁶. From another perspective however, Hughes' argument can be challenged: as shown in Table 1, aid can be seen to have had positive impact on the Pacific. Countries such as Samoa, Cook Islands, French Polynesia, and New Caledonia which have historically received high levels of aid per capita now experience not only high volumes but also relatively good rates of economic growth. Unfortunately, when aid fails to achieve results, blame is placed on recipients. As mentioned above, Hughes (2003), among other critics, argues that Australian aid to the Pacific has largely failed because of the inability of island states to use it responsibly. However such a perception exaggerates the control recipient nations can exercise over the use of aid and ignores the flaws in the way AusAID manages its affairs which can also contribute to project failure (Naidu, 2005; Mausio, 2006).

The biggest questions in the Pacific today are, "How effective have aid programmes been in changing peoples' lives?" and "How successful have aid agencies been in coordinating the delivery of aid to national partners and maximising the benefits from taxpayer resources in

³⁶ As used by Hughes (2003) and Peterson (2007), the intention – aid as a positive contribution to development – becomes something else akin to looting of booty.

terms of aid alignment and harmonisation?” More generally, donors, stakeholders, and taxpayers have a collective interest in seeing that the best use is made of aid resources and what difference this has made or is making to the lives of people. What works, and for whom?

AusAID in the Pacific Region

Between 1950 and 1970, the leading international donors in the Pacific were France, the United States, Germany, the United Kingdom, and Australia. While Australia is not a substantial aid donor in the global context, it is so in the Pacific region. Through AusAID, Australia plays a pivotal role in developing the Pacific island states through development assistance. Australia’s interest and engagement in the international aid arena was established through the Colombo Plan.

Although Australia has reviewed its aid approach several times, Baba (1987; 1989) locates the most significant shift in policy to the mid-1980s when the emphasis first began to fall on self-reliance through the promotion of and support for national, regional, education institutions. This moved initiatives away from recommendations made in the Jackson Report (1984) which focused on how aid could work for Australia, provide greater economic returns, and through scholarship schemes, educate Pacific students in Australian tertiary education institutions. It was obvious that such arrangements ensured that a very high proportion of AusAID funding remained within the Australian economy (Baba, 1987; 1989).

According to the Jackson Report (1985), aid is only a small part of the total resources that developing countries need to progress. However,

from the 1990s there was a definite shift from the emphasis of the Jackson Report which held that the overall aims of foreign aid were to achieve humanitarian, strategic, and commercial goals. The emphasis gradually moved away from a policy under which Australian aid was to promote Australian economic interests which allowed more Pacific students to attend Australian tertiary institutions (Coxon and Tolley, 2005). Consequently, a high proportion of Australian aid dollars was retained in the Australian economy as result of increased export and provisions of Australian educational services through contracting out of Australian institutions to deliver. As Chand (2004:16) pointed out with regard to the Simons Review (1997), if the objectives of the Australian aid programme had been to assist developing countries to reduce poverty through sustainable and economic development, then they would have adopted quite different goals. Consequently, the question of the contribution made by aid to the development process is one of the key questions in relation to the justification of development cooperation. In the mid 1980s there was a shift in Australian aid policy to the Pacific. According to Baba (1987; 1989) the focus of the Australian aid for the last twenty or so years has been explicitly about providing assistance and capacity building for Pacific people to be self-reliant. Consequently, Australian development assistance has been focused on explicit support for enhancing the capability of national and regional educational institutions for education and training (Coxon and Baba, 2003). In the Fiji situation, assistance through AusAID was prevalent in the revision of curriculum and the upgrade of teacher training institutions. However in the mid 2000, Australian aid through FESP focused in upgrading of primary schools and teacher training Colleges in support of the Fiji MOE and improving the quality of education.

Recently the focus of Australian ODA has moved away from the one clear objective of poverty reduction to a “multiplicity of objectives” (Chand, 2004) which focus on four interlinked themes: accelerating economic growth, fostering functioning and effective states, investing in people, and promoting regional stability and cooperation (Downer, 2004). These themes provide a matrix through which aid is programmed and implemented. Through the “investment in people” theme, AusAID recognises and supports developing countries to achieve universal basic education, improve the quality of basic education, and pursue the equitable distribution of these quality improvements (Downer, 2004). The aid programme has been the central and most practical part of Australia’s interest in the region.

Through the aid programme, Australia recognises the many development constraints faced by the islands in the Pacific region, including the enormous challenges of maintaining viable economies at a time of rapid global, economic, and technological change. The Australian focus on educational aid is a way to assist developing countries to reduce poverty and to achieve sustainable development by giving more girls and boys a better education (Downer, 2005). AusAID’s target in the Pacific region by 2010, is to increase the number of children attending school by 10 million and to improve the quality of education for an additional 50 million children (Downer, 2004).

Given the scope and the dimension of the challenges of the Pacific islands, the achievements of AusAID interest for improved basic education and improved living standards may be a long way off but significant progress has been made. Basic social indicators such as life expectancy, literacy rates, infant mortality, and school enrolment have improved steadily since independence and at a rate comparable

to other low income countries (Australia's assistance has contributed to these outcomes). Although the social indicators have improved steadily in many parts of the Pacific not much real improvements in the quality of peoples' lives and positive development outcomes have been achieved at a ratio consistent with the steady increase of net ODA allocation (Table 2). However such improvements have been far from universal. Where there has been good aid support over the years for education and health, such as Samoa and Tonga, or a relatively prosperous economy as in Fiji, the social indicators are good by international standards. But in PNG, the Solomon Islands, and Vanuatu the indicators are much less positive (Bourke, 2004).

Table 2
Social indicators in the Pacific selected examples

	HDI Ranking (of 179)	Population 2007 (000)	Life expectancy 2006	Adult Literacy rate % 2006	GDP Per capita \$US 2006	Maternal mortality rate (per 100k live births 2006)	Child mortality rate<5yrs per 1000 births 2006
PNG	149	6,320	57.0	57.3	1,950	470	73
Solomons	134	500	63.2	76.2	1,586	220	73
Vanuatu	123	230	69.6	77.3	3,481	-	36
Fiji	103	840	68.5	71.5	4,548	210	18
Samoa	90	100	71.1	98.7	3,828	-	20
Tonga	86	100	73.0	99.2	3,677	-	24
Cook Is	-	18	-	-	-	-	19

<http://unstats.un.org/unsd/mdg/Resources/Static/Products/Progress2006/MDGReport2006.pdf> 28, April, 2009.

According to Dinnen (2004), one of the most important factors in changing the Australian Government's thinking about the region was the transformation in the international environment following the September 11 attack in the United States and the Bali bombing³⁷ on October 12, 2002. Consequently the Bush administration in Washington, adopted the "war on terror" as the principal lens through which to view issues involving conflict and instability in the region. Within this expanded concept of security, Australia followed the notion of "failed" or "failing" states as critical contributing to threats and security issues in the region.

Australia's bilateral development aid to the Pacific is managed by AusAID. The overriding goal has been to help partner countries achieve the maximum possible degree of self-reliance (Maha, 2005). Since 2004 this goal has been approached using a medium term strategic blueprint that advocates the achievement of five principal outcomes: good governance, stronger growth, greater capacity, better service delivery, and environmental integrity (Maha, 2005). The pursuit of these outcomes was originally announced in 2002 by Alexander Downer (Australian Minister for Foreign Affairs) in his eleventh statement to parliament in a document entitled *Australian Aid: Investing in Growth, Stability and Prosperity*. This document was the most important since *Better Aid for a Better Future* (O'Keeffe, 2004:33). Among other important developments, it effectively replaced the previous sectoral emphasis with five guiding themes,

- Promoting improved governance and strengthening democratic processes;

³⁷ On 12 October 2002, a suicide bomber inside the nightclub, Paddy's Pub, detonated a bomb in his backpack, causing death and many patrons, with or without injuries, to immediately flee into the street.

- Assisting developing countries to access and maximize benefits from trade and new information technologies;
- Supporting stability and government legitimacy through improved delivery of basic services
- Strengthening regional security by enhancing partner governments' capacity to prevent conflict, enhance stability and manage trans-boundary challenges, and
- Promoting a sustainable approach to the management of the environment and the use of scarce resources.

(O'Keeffe, 2004, p. 33; Downer, 2005, p. 5)

These five guiding themes provide a coherent policy basis for Australia's development cooperation work (O'Keeffe, 2004; Downer, 2005). Poverty reduction remained the integrating factor which set a clear policy framework for AusAID and was also consistent with government's undertaking to the international community to contribute to the achievement of the MDGs as enshrined in the PAEP. As a member of the OECD, Australia was, and remains, committed to the Paris Declaration.

However AusAID objectives were guided by a strategic framework set out in the March 2005 Ministerial Statement entitled: *Australian Aid: An Integrated Approach* (Downer 2005). This document focused on the Asia-Pacific region - particularly immediate neighbours - with a strong emphasis following a review in December 2004 on fostering long-term partnerships with regional neighbours and identifying integrated, practical solutions to development challenges. In 2004-2005 the AusAID programme focused on Australia's national interest in the Asia-Pacific region. Foreign Affairs Minister, Alexander Downer in his annual statement to parliament on March 10, 2005, called for the

shift of AusAID from poverty alleviation to economic growth and security:

The key to lifting people out of poverty is sustainable broad-based economic growth. No durable solution to poverty can be achieved without it. And we know how such growth is obtained – it's through: providing secure and stable environment, improving governance and the investment climate, including property rights, opening up trade, and helping the poor to participate in such growth through health, education and market access.

(Downer, 2005, p. 15)

Although Fiji benefited from substantial AusAID assistance, other Melanesian countries like PNG and Solomon Islands were higher on the list of the top ten recipients of gross ODA (Table 3). PNG stands out in particular, receiving more than 50% of all the total Australian ODA flows to the Pacific. Fiji is ranked fourth after Vanuatu and benefited by securing 3.23% of the total aid flow to the Pacific. The current trend has shown that there has been an increase in the net ODA of aid allocation between 2005 and 2006 by 15.1% with the constant change of 6.7% per annum with the change of 11% in Australian dollars which equates to a shift in the total amount from 1985 to 2006. The focus on development issues has been on new initiatives to stimulate growth in the region through pilot programmes to overcome constraints to growth particularly in rural areas.

Table 3
Destination of Australian Aid 2005-2006

Major Partner Countries / Regions	2001-02	Outcome (\$m) Expenses	2003-04	Estimate (\$m) Expenses		2005-06 Budget Estimate
		2002-03		2004-05 Budget Figure	Expected Outcome	
PAPUA NEW GUINEA & PACIFIC						
Papua New Guinea	328.9	331.5	321.3	435.6	366.6	492.3
Solomon Islands	41.8	33.5	139.5	201.6	171.5	246.8
Vanuatu	21.4	23.5	24.6	30.9	28.7	34.1
Fiji	17.0	20.9	21.9	25.1	28.0	30.5
Samoa	14.1	16.8	18.1	18.4	18.6	21.5
Tonga	11.2	12.2	12.1	12.0	12.8	14.2
Kiribati	10.9	11.9	11.4	11.9	10.9	12.5
Regional Pacific	44.5	53.0	58.7	69.7	68.1	91.4
Total PNG & Pacific	490.0	503.3	607.7	805.2	705.1	943.2
<i>Nauru Additional</i>	18.8	21.3	15.5	13.5	13.5	12.0
EAST ASIA						
Indonesia (Ongoing program)	122.8	131.9	158.5	190.8	259.5	169.6
Indonesia (AIPRD)					10.8	132.1
Vietnam	68.3	70.8	73.5	73.7	74.4	77.3
Philippines	62.7	63.7	48.9	62.2	62.5	63.7
China	54.8	60.7	53.7	49.3	49.8	46.2
Cambodia	37.8	38.5	37.8	41.4	38.2	42.7
East Timor	60.3	56.2	44.8	39.9	64.2	42.0
Laos	20.3	17.7	18.6	18.4	19.4	19.6
Thailand	17.3	19.1	14.9	10.6	13.4	7.0
Regional East Asia	30.3	26.1	29.8	37.1	46.1	45.8
Total East Asia	474.8	484.6	480.4	493.4	638.4	646.1
SOUTH ASIA, AFRICA & OTHER						
Bangladesh	34.8	30.8	28.1	28.7	32.9	32.3
Sri Lanka	10.8	14.0	21.8	23.0	39.8	29.1
India	18.1	15.9	17.1	17.2	17.2	13.7
Regional South Asia	15.5	21.1	19.5	17.6	23.5	22.5
Africa	64.5	70.6	80.5	67.5	75.0	77.0
Middle East and Central Asia	37.6	92.1	83.6	52.9	59.9	66.6
Total South Asia, Africa & Other	182.1	244.4	250.6	206.7	248.9	241.3
Other Government Departments <i>(not attributed to county/region)</i>	128.0	145.6	144.2	158.5	204.1	173.2
Core contributions to multilateral Organisations, other ODA	495.2	449.0	506.5	450.8	446.4	486.2
Reconciliation of expenses to cash	-33.7	-174.4	-319	-5.1	-2.9	-11.1
Total ODA (cash)	1755.1	1830.8	1973.1	2133.1	2252.9	2490.8
ODA at constant 2004-05 prices	1919.7	1940.4	2022.4	2133.1	2252.9	2383.6
Real change over previous year (%)	5.8	1.1	4.2		11.4	5.8
OD A/GNI Ration (%)	0.25	0.25	0.25	0.26	0.27	0.28

Source: Downer, 2005, p xiv

In 2005-2006 the Australian Minister for Foreign Affairs' Statement (Downer, 2005) highlighted another shift in Australia's approach to address challenges of regional security and prosperity. Australia responded effectively to the challenges posed by fragile states, and their ability to cope with humanitarian crises. Special emphasis was placed on the December 2004 Indian Ocean disaster, which called on an integrated, holistic government approach to engaging with the Asia Pacific region.

The 2006-2007 Minister for Foreign Affairs' Statement (Downer, 2006) was a marked watershed for Australia's overseas programme. The White Paper was launched in April, 2007 and outlined how Australia would approach the goal of doubling Australia's annual aid expenditure to the Pacific from two billion to about A\$4billion by 2010 with the aim of strengthening governance and reducing corruption in partner countries (Downer, 2006). The Paper was guided by four thematic priorities and themes: accelerate economic growth, foster functioning effective states, invest in people, and promote regional stability and cooperation. It also emphasised three overarching principles: first, make a greater commitment to gender equality across all aspects of the aid programme; second, develop closer partnerships with recipient countries through the greater use of local systems and processes; and finally, untie Australian aid from Australian providers to enhance competition and get better value for money as more money was committed to support regional initiatives (Downer, 2006).

Educational Aid in the Pacific

In the early years following World War II, the role of aid was closely linked to theories of development and part of the worldwide process of decolonisation. Most of the countries in the Pacific have been left with

a colonial legacy in the form of Western education systems, Western languages, and strong ties with former colonial powers and surrounding metropolitan centres (NZAID, 2004). According to Coxon and Tolley (2005), decolonisation resulted from two major influences, the first of which was the spread of nationalist movements among colonised peoples and their renewed demands for self government. The second significant factor that contributed to the decolonisation process was a shift in the balance of world power under which the old colonial powers, such as Britain, lost influence and the anti-colonial powers of the United States and the Soviet Union became dominant. In the decolonisation process, the superpowers promoted a development model for the newly post-colonial states which persuaded them to come under their political and economic influence.

As a result former colonisers focused on educational assistance as an area in which a significant contribution could be made to development in the Pacific (Sanga, 2005b). This has continued and over the last decade there has been a marked increase in educational aid which is likely to continue and will increase significantly over the next five years (Puamau, 2005). According to Maha (2005), educational aid has been sought for capacity building in relation to the expansion and consolidation of basic education.

However with reference to educational aid effectiveness, Sanga (2005) has outlined a detailed framework to assess the effectiveness and impact of educational aid within the various national contexts. Under this framework Pacific researchers have been charged with the responsibility to assess the impact of aid by undertaking the following tasks:

- Describe the status of educational aid. Include descriptions of projects and aid activities, who the

donors were, and what area of education they were interested in and the extent of spending in-country. Describe aid managements and what conditionalities are imposed on recipient countries. Note trends of aid or managements of types of activities.

- Assess the local capacities for aid. Include commentaries on the local aid process within the government and ministries of education. Comment on priority setting, choice of donors, negotiation rules and procedures, implementation capacities, local expertise for consultancy work and the extent of influence of the aid agenda. Note any comparative local capacity change over time.
- Assess general and specific impact of aid. Evaluate projects in relation to project goals, country policies and educational aspirations. Assess the extent of social, economic, and educational impacts of projects including negative and unintended ones. Assess the local need for the relevance and will to sustain positive impacts.
- Comment on the constraints and challenges of aid, including philosophies, technological, financial and organisational ones. Focus on variables that reflect local contexts.
- Identify key lessons from aid experiences, including but not limited to local capacities, issues of relevance, concerns over autonomy, interactions with donors, paradigms and processes used, financing, accountability and misuse, social and political impacts. Focus on variables that reflect local contexts.

(Sanga, 2005b, p. 42-3)

Despite the increase in aid to the Pacific, Sanga (2005b) has argued that aid has not improved relationships between educational stakeholders within the Pacific countries. Taufe'ulungaki (2002) concurs with this pointing out that despite decades of aid, Pacific

peoples have not taken ownership of their education systems, but have instead remained overwhelmed by their inability to provide both basic education needs and services at a level of consistent quality.

A greater emphasis needs to be placed on partnership among stakeholders as a vital component in the successful implementation of aid initiatives (Cracknell, 2005). As suggested in the MDGs, some of the key sectors for assistance are in education and health, with primary education and primary health care as priorities. If these sectors are to be developed effectively then the necessary infrastructure needs to be put in place first. This means working closely with government departments and other donors through sector wide approaches (SWAp). General budget support needs to be secured if a coordinated and large-scale approach is to work.

Fiji Education System

The Fiji education system is confronted with new and complex issues which have made the prospect of educating the Fijian child for the 21st century more challenging. According to Flenner (1981) the education of youth and continuing education of adults have been rendered difficult and made people more conscious of their dignity and responsibility to play an active role in social and especially in economic and political spheres. In Fiji, education is compulsory from the age of six where schools operate under community–state partnership system (Fiji Education Commission, 2000). According to the UN Development Report³⁸ (2006), literacy in Fiji is relatively high at 96 percent (96%) and it is ranked internationally at 62nd place. Although the average figure is high, there is wide disparity in

³⁸ See <http://hdr.undp.org/en/reports/global/hdr2007-2008> 10 March, 2008.

education standards between urban schools and the more marginalised rural and island schools. Parental search for better educational opportunities is one of the factors that drive the high rate of rural-urban migration and crowding into substandard housing especially along the Suva–Nausori corridor and similarly in other major urban centres.

In the last two decades the MOE has focused on the provision of teachers, curriculum development, maintenance of standards, and the provision of recurrent and capital grants (MOE Annual Report, 2006). However the responsibility for school maintenance and teacher accommodation fall under the jurisdiction of community-run and funded school committees, which own and manage 98.5 per cent of all the schools in the country (MOE Annual Report, 2006). As the Fiji Education Commission's report (2000) noted, these community–state education partnerships reveal their limitations in rural areas. The rural communities normally rely upon subsistence farming and fishing for food and generally have limited cash incomes. They find it difficult to adequately support school facilities and resources. As already mentioned, the shortfall has raised a lot of concern. There are significant inequalities between rural and urban education. The disparity is made evident by the gap between rural-based and urban-based students in the examination pass rates. In 2000 the Fiji School Leaving Certificate (FSLC) rural pass rate was only 26 per cent compared with a 62 per cent (62%) urban pass rate (Fiji Education Commission, 2000). However the general statistics of the MOE Annual Report (2006:7) showed that while the primary enrolment was 140,129, a slight decrease from the previous year (141,089); the secondary enrolment increased by 3,025 to 69,816.

The Fiji education curriculum has a heavy academic focus which has been widely criticised because the majority of children live in rural areas; the urban bias of the curriculum makes little acknowledgement of rural economic activities or rural life where greater emphasis is placed on traditional values (Fiji Education Commission, 2000). These concerns were raised as early as 1969 when the Royal Commission Report advocated the need to localise the curriculum and provide more vocational skills. Although the curriculum has undergone some revision since then, many people believe it needs further improvement (Fiji Education Commission, 2000). The Fiji Education Summit in 2005 also provided an opportunity to focus the aims of the Fiji education system over the next ten years and target resources in a way that will allow all students to fully benefit from educational services. Social problems and tensions as a result of limited resources in schools have exerted added pressure on the school system as a whole, providing challenges to the curriculum, the teachers, the community, and to the school environment, culture, and ethos. Another serious issue is the continuing rise in unemployment and school dropouts, which challenges the relevance of the curriculum and programmes in schools. As a result, there is a demand from all segments of society and the nation as a whole for relevance. Another contributing factor to unemployment is the lack of stable political environment through poor governance in Fiji where the investors are not keen to invest and create employment opportunities.

It is widely acknowledged that there was a need for change and new directions to meet these challenges. It was expressed by the 2000 Education Commission Report (2000:18), that education in Fiji will require “strategies for further qualitative improvements in the nations’ human resources”. Such strategies must be aimed at molding the child to become an active and productive participant in society and to

take charge of his or her life in a constantly changing and culturally diverse environment (MOE, 2005). This was a great shift to accommodate the increasing population and the wide range of needs from the last Education Summit Report in 1969 in which the TOR highlighted:

to examine that part of the system of primary, post primary, and teacher education which comes under the aegis of the Education Department and its relevance to Fiji future needs and to make recommendations...

(Fiji Education Commission Report, 1969, p. i)

Over the last decade, there has been some efforts by the Qarase Government (Soqosoqo ni Duavata ni Levenivanua Party -SDL) to forge a new partnership with the community with particular focus on increasing access to a quality Education for All (EFA)³⁹. Member states of the United Nations adopted the final World Declaration for EFA in 2000. In Fiji, the MOE was responsible in coordinating all the

³⁹ Education for All (EFA) is a global movement led by UNESCO, aiming to meet the learning needs of all children, youth, and adults by 2015. The movement was launched in 1990 at the World Conference on Education for All in Jomtien, Thailand. There, representatives of the international community (155 countries as well as representatives from some 150 organisations) agreed to "universalize primary education and massively reduce illiteracy by the end of the decade". In 2000, ten years later, the international community met again in Dakar, Senegal in April 2000, and took stock of many countries being far from reaching the 2015 goal. They affirmed their broad-based strategy commitment to continuing to pursue the goal of achieving Education for All by the year 2015, and identified six key measurable education goals which aim to ensure the learning needs of all children, youth, and adults are met within a generation by 2015 and sustained thereafter. The six goals are:

Goal 1: Expand early childhood care and education

Goal 2: Provide free and compulsory primary education for all

Goal 3: Promote learning and life skills for young people and adults

Goal 4: Increase adult literacy by 50 per cent

Goal 5: Achieve gender parity by 2005, gender equality by 2015

Goal 6: Improve the quality of education

EFA work with other government ministries and controlling authorities of non-government schools and other stakeholders. The EFA goals are to:

- Expand Early Childhood Education (ECE) Care and Education
- Universal Access to Free Primary Education
- Equitable Access to Life Skills programs
- Expand Adult Literacy by 50% by 2015
- Gender Equity
- Quality Education.

(MOE Annual Report, 2005, p. 5)

To achieve these EFA goals, the MOE has concentrated on the implementation of the national EFA Action Plan for Fiji as developed by the EFA Forum. From time to time it has revised the EFA Action Plan in line with international developments and concerns, and monitored and reported on implementation progress of the Action Plan and the coordination of donor funding for the implementation of programmes in the Action Plan. The Fiji government views EFA as a priority area and this was reflected in a 5 per cent (5%) increase in 2005 government funding (MOE Annual Report, 2005). As a result the MOE Annual Report (2006) highlighted its achievements through:

- Quality education & Training for All that is responsive to changing needs;
- Productive, Transparent and Accountable Institutions; and
- Equitable Participation of All in Socio Economic Development (Equal Opportunities for All)

(MOE Annual Report, 2006, p. 4)

As a result the MOE continued to monitor the progress in the attainment of the international commitments towards EFA and the

MDSs in the areas such as the universal primary education, school retention rates, gender equality and early childhood education.

Table 4
Educational Aid to Fiji by AusAID and the European Union
(2003-2008)

Donor	Amount FJD	Duration	Year
AusAID (Fiji Education Sector Programme)	\$20 million	5 years	2004-2006 2007-2008
AusAID (Lautoka Teachers College)	\$5 million	3 years	2003-2006
EU (Fiji Rural Education Programme)	\$45.5 million	5 years	2004-2008
EU (Lautoka Teachers College)	\$8.3 million	3 years	2003-2008
TOTAL	\$78.8 million	3-5 years	2003-2008

(Fiji Rural Education Project Design Document, 2003, Volume II)

Fiji, like other Pacific nations, has benefited from the changes in the aid debate without really taking part. Donors have ultimate control over the volume and the type of aid disbursed and how it is used, in line with other donors' officially prescribed aims and philosophies. Consequently aid becomes part of a power relationship that favours

the more powerful donors and subordinates recipients. Gibson (1991) argued that while aid is heralded as humanitarian assistance, it is ultimately political and involves power relations which are underpinned by the commercial, strategic, and ideological interests of the donors. Van Peer (2005) agrees and adds that the notion of “partnership” in any relationship will remain lopsided as long as power is located in the hands of one stakeholder rather than being truly shared.

Aid exemplifies one of the major visible forms of development relationships between economically developed countries and Third World countries which have distorted economies (Ratuva, 1995). Many Third World countries have become acculturated to an aid dependence syndrome which has more or less become the economic norm and is integrated into all development planning. This in turn encourages international funding agencies such as the World Bank and International Monetary Fund (IMF) - as well as AusAID and NZAID working primarily in the Pacific - to promote conditional aid which reinforces subordination, affirms global stratification, and encourages Pacific recipients to become passive participants in the aid process none of which meet the conditions of the ‘Paris Accord’.

As discussed earlier in this work, despite the increase in aid flow Fiji is not as aid dependent per capita as many other Pacific Island countries (Table 1). Net overseas development assistance to Fiji in 2003 represented 2.3 percent of its GNI which is a modest increase of 1.6 percent from 2001. Like many Pacific countries and territories Fiji has benefited from capital and technical inputs provided by aid (Guy, 2000). However, Fiji has few donors actively engaged in education (see Table 4), and of these Australia provides significant assistance through the Fiji Education Sector Program (FESP) and other projects.

One of the latest initiatives is the establishment of the Australia-Pacific Technical College (APTC) to deliver Australian standard qualifications, boost skill levels in the region, and improve employment opportunities. Although the intention has merit, the funding would be more appropriate to Fiji and the Pacific countries if part of the A\$434.4 million ODA allocated was directed to boost the existing ailing technical institutes which are in dire need of funding assistance. The funding would allow local technical institutes to operate competitively with other overseas technical institutes, especially the “fly-by”⁴⁰ education providers that profit by providing technical training but in so doing could also displace Fijian institutions. Unless local institutions are supported financially, the APTC will become just another training institution as a ‘springboard’ for qualified Pacific to migrate to Australia and other countries overseas to sustain their demand for skilled and qualified professionals. Undoubtedly the overseas training and employment opportunities are usually more attractive than the local opportunities. This will exacerbate the current and loss of skilled labour from the Pacific.

If the Australian government was to genuinely engage in building the capacity of technical institutions in the Pacific region it would fund the recurrent operation costs of existing, ailing technical institutions and bail them out of their current financial difficulties. Such support would allow these technical institutions to perform their original educational tasks in their respective island nations. Instead, Australia has elected to follow a fresh-start policy that has left the old technical institutions to languish and this issue has simply not been raised by

⁴⁰ These are TAFE or tertiary institutes which are mostly interested in their economic gains in the name of provision for education services. Many of them operate and driven by countries to gain high profit margin and economic return.

any of the of AusAID recipients in order to main their diplomatic relationships (Sanga, 2003).

Education Aid to Fiji

Fiji is part of the global community and by virtue of this link it is committed to fulfilling international responsibilities. It has made commitments to international bodies such as the United Nations, the European Union, and AusAID. At the regional level, Fiji has close ties with organisations such as the Pacific Island Forum (PIF) through bilateral and multilateral agreements. Fiji is also part of the EU/NZAID Pacific Regional Initiatives for the Delivery of Basic Education (PRIDE). It has commitments and connections with UNESCO's Education for All (EFA) and the Fiji Education Sector Program (FESP) with an AusAID and EU unit. The Fiji Government is also committed to the UN Millennium Declaration (UNMD) and the achievement of the 8 MDGs (Appendix XI). On the whole, the new strategic plan drawn up in 2005 featured the Fiji government's commitment, through the MOE, to promote the Decade of Education for Sustainable Development (DESD) 2005-2014. The vision of the DESD is to develop in Fiji "a world where everyone has the opportunity to benefit from education and learn the values, behaviour and lifestyles required for a sustainable future and for positive societal transformation" (MOE National Education Summit, 2005).

Over the last decade the purpose of international aid has increasingly come to focus on poverty reduction and to facilitate sustainable development of the least developed and developing countries and enable these countries and their citizens to meet economic and social needs. Fiji is no exception to this. The World Education Forum held in Dakar in April 2000 recognised education as a critical aspect of poverty alleviation (UNESCO, 2000). Aid can be in the form of

budgetary support, but currently it is more often allocated to specific projects or programmes that attempt to address areas identified by the donor and recipient as high need areas. Underpinning country aid programmes is the wish to assist recipient countries to develop their capacity to support and maintain their own sustainable development. In particular, where infrastructure is involved, there are often elements within aid activity to build on or develop the capacity for sustainability. Consequently the aid policy has changed where aid donors begin to foster greater partnership and the aid recipients are more assertive in their aid relationship. According to Collier and Dollar, (2001), good aid policies enhance effective aid initiatives. However, good policies can only be assured if the principles of good governance are in place and practiced.

Fiji has benefited from various types of assistance through educational aid from a number of donor agencies from the late 1990s and into the early 2000s (Table 3). Australia through AusAID has led the field by its commitment to the Fiji Education during the 1990s the FATEP and the BEMTUP were two funded projects both managed by Griffith University. These programmes impacted on the provision of both pre-service and in-service teacher education programmes in Fiji (Coxon, 2000:392). These two initiatives are discussed in detail in Chapter 5. AusAID has been supported by the EU which has continued to have some direct and indirect association with teacher education. The details of these projects (FATEP, BEMTUP & LTCUP) are elaborated in chapters 5 and 6.

Table 5
Education Assistance to Fiji 1998-2003

Year	Project	Donor	Amount (F\$000)
1998	BEMTUP	AusAID	1,396.3
	Introduction to Physical Education, Music, Art & Craft	Japan Aid	291.0
	Total Aid assistance in 1998		1,687.3
	USP Capital Works	AusAID	4,848.1
1999	BEMTUP	AusAID	1,074.0
	Rural school micro projects	EU aid	1,000.0
	Total assistance in 1999		2,074.0
2000	BEMTUP	AusAID	0.466-Proposed but suspended during the May 2000 coup
	Education Review Commission	NZAID	0.7714-Proposed but suspended during the May 2000 coup
	Education Review Commission	AusAID	0.1276-Proposed but suspended during the May 2000 coup
	Total assistance in 2000		Suspended due to the May 2000 Coup.
2001	BEMTUP	AusAID	102.7
	Total assistance in 2001		102.7
2002	Lautoka Teachers College	EU	1,720.0
	Total assistance in 2002		1,720.0
2003	Education sector support	AusAID	1,300.0
	Lautoka Teachers College	EU	2,500.0
	Lautoka Teachers College	AusAID	1,482.5
	Total assistance in 2003		5,282.5
	Total Aid Assistance to Education 1998-2003		10,866.5

NB: This total does not include small-scale assistance to the education sector from, for example, Taiwanese grants and Japan's grant assistance for grassroots programmes.

(Ministry of Finance, 2007)

The Educational assistance outlined in Table 3 highlights the steady increase of aid directed to teacher education. However, in the early 21st century the partnership between AusAID and the EU in the LTCUP initiative became more obvious (details in chapter 6) as it came to the forefront. Unfortunately, the political upheaval of the 2000 coup and then another coup in 2006 saw the suspension of some assistance due to donor sanctions. The sanctions raised a lot of concern relating to the sustainability of these educational projects. However, to address the recent increase in the overseas educational aid assistance, the GOF through the MOE has established an aid coordinating unit to manage aid through the Fiji Education Sector Program (FESP).

The Fiji Education Sector Program (FESP- AusAID)

The Fiji Education Sector Program (FESP- AusAID), a five-year program worth A\$25 million, commenced in June 2003. The AusAID (Australian Government) funded programme is assisting the Fiji Ministry of Education (MOE) to implement strategic reforms and to improve the delivery and quality of education in Fiji. Under the FESP, AusAID provided support to the MOE until at least June 2008 when the project was to be reviewed. Today the MOE personnel are taking control of the sustainability of the programme.

Goal and Purpose of FESP-AusAID

The main goal of the FESP is to assist the MOE to implement strategic reforms, in improving the delivery and quality of educational services in Fiji. The programme is aimed at children in disadvantaged and isolated communities and islands as the assistance to enable the MOE to enhance the quality of education for students in remote areas of Fiji.

During the tenure of the initiative, the FESP-AusAID has played a pivotal role in the improvement of curriculum relevance and flexibility in the following areas:

- Development of primary science kits, procured and supplied where teachers are trained and the science module is developed, piloted and evaluated;
- A new assessment tool (FILNA) was developed and trialled in 170 schools;
- 20 primary schools and 20 secondary schools participated in the pilot of Enterprise Education initiatives, each with \$500 seeding grant,
- Nine Vocational Centres have been assisted to upgrade one course that now meet the Fiji Institute of Technology accreditation standards;
- Thirty Early Childhood pilot schools have been assisted through the professional development programme for teachers in teaching/learning strategies for young children; and
- An outreach programme for parents, caregivers and community members to foster language development.

(MOE Annual Report 2006, p. 28 & 29)

The MOE also aimed to achieve three major objectives (groups of activities) proposed within FESP:

- Build leadership and management capacity within the MOE
- Build policy and planning capacity of MOE's Central Office
- Improve curriculum relevance and flexibility.

(MOE Annual Report 2006, p. 28)

These components provide the rationale for the selection of key priorities drawn from the Ministry of Education Strategic Plan 2003-2005, which was also linked to the National Strategic Development Plan 2003-2005. An extensive consultation process with all stakeholders in the education system was undertaken and information drawn from the Report of the Fiji Islands Education Commission/Panel (2000) was the basis for selecting FESP activities.

Planning for the education system

The FESP interventions have assisted in developing MOE planning and have led to the formulation of the following key planning documents:

- Building a Strategic Direction for Education in Fiji 2006-2015;
- Suva Declaration 2005 (emerged from the 2005 Education Summit);
- MOE Strategic Plan 2006-2008; and
- MOE Corporate Plan 2006.

(AusAID LTCUP Revised PDD, August 2004. p. 17)

The FESP's strategic interventions in relation to the MOE have also contributed to improvements in the quality of the Ministry's planning activities. This is most evident when compared to the MOE Strategic and Corporate Plans before the FESP. Recent plans more firmly link objectives, strategies, performance indicators, resources, and implementation schedules. Moreover, a nucleus of MOE staff has essentially led the development and production of these plans, leading to a sustainable MOE planning capacity.

Recent plans prepared by MOE have been acknowledged within Fiji Government circles as conforming to best practice (MOE, 2006). Other donors have been impressed by the quality of these plans. Current FESP interventions will develop MOE capabilities and capacity to conduct monitoring and evaluation activities through the delineation of accountability for the implementation of the Corporate Plan.

In the Measurement and Evaluation study, participants were surveyed to ascertain what if any changes they have introduced into their own shares of work activity. These were some of the major findings:

- Participants felt they had learnt a lot that was relevant to their own work situations;
- Of those surveyed all reported the acquisition of new knowledge and skills with over 75% citing use of new knowledge and skills in their own work situations with examples provided; and
- The experience had informed the MOF selection of FESP activities for second MOE Annual Plan. Specific examples given were in the areas of outcome-based curriculum, curriculum framework, and contemporary assessment methods.

(FESP Monitoring and Evaluation Study, March 2005. p. 9)

The FESP interventions in HR activities have created a platform for more efficient use of MOE resources, notably through improved staff deployment and better control of staff entitlements. These activities and those in the policy area have all contributed to the improvement in the MOE planning. Although leadership and management

outcomes and the quality of LTC planning have improved, further improvement is required.

Conclusion

Efforts to professionalise aid management tools have been accompanied by debates over whether educational aid is effective, conducive to learning, and compatible with more democratic and empowering relationships with beneficiaries (Edwards and Hulme, 1996; Gaspar, 2004). However, it is obvious that both donors and host governments in the Pacific need to actively demonstrate a commitment to working together towards aid alignment and harmonisation. Towards this end most Pacific governments such as Fiji have set the objectives of increased alignment and harmonisation. These governments believe that an increased awareness of the harmonisation agenda, particularly for implementing agencies, is necessary to support ownership. This requires initiatives for sequencing actions to establish broader public sector reforms and strong public sector financial management and planning. Such initiatives need to fall in behind reforms and not be driven in isolation from them or as an end in themselves (OECD, 1996).

The next chapter examines the Fiji Australia Teacher Education Project (FATEP) and Basic Education Management Teacher Upgrading Project (BEMPTUP) both funded by AusAID. These provide as background information for the research in recognising the importance of quality education where the role of teachers cannot be overemphasised (Delors, 1996).

Chapter 5

The Fiji Australian Teacher Education Project (FATEP)

Recipient Governments need to understand that in engaging into any AID bilateral agreement or relationships, they should be committed to the sustainability of the project.

(Alowesi Logavatu (2007), Senior Lecturer (Social Science), Fiji College of Advanced Education)

Introduction

The previous chapter highlighted the impact of aid to Fiji development, particularly AusAID assistance in education. This chapter outlines the Fiji Australian Teacher Education Project (FATEP) and the Basic Education Management Teacher Upgrading Project (BEMTUP) as background information in comparison to the LTCUP case study which is discussed in Chapter 6. The FATEP initiative was conducted in the early nineties (1992-1995) at the Fiji College of Advance Education (FCAE) while the BEMTUP was implemented in the late 1990's at LTC. Both projects were among the early AusAID development projects to teacher education. The review of the implementation of these projects unravelled and raised some of the aid relationships that emerged. The chapter explores how delivery of aid works and how through donor self-interest a substantial amount tied aid⁴¹ is retained. This results in what Baba (1989) has called "boomerang aid"⁴² where the benefit comes back to the aid provider.

⁴¹ In this type of aid, the giving (or donor) country also benefits economically from the aid. This happens as the receiving country has to buy goods and services from the donor country to get the aid in the first place.

⁴² A term used to by Baba (1989) to describe how Australian aid money is repatriated to Australia through consultation fees and procurement of Australian resources.

The Fiji College of Advanced Education

It was in the interest of the Fiji Government to retain the Nasinu Teachers College, to train more teachers, which was then the Nasinu Residential College (NRC), thus the Fiji Government recommended in its report in 1991 that the NRC be converted and renamed as the Fiji College of Advanced Education (FCAE). Through FATEP, the AusAID project, the institution began operation in November 1992 (this will be discussed in a later part of this chapter). The FCAE is located in Nasinu, about 6 kilometers from Suva, between the Suva and Nausori corridor. During the Second World War the training of teachers at the Natabua Teachers' Training Institute was suspended and shifted to Nasinu. When the government decided to establish Nasinu Teachers College (NTC) as the only government teacher training institution, this relocation became permanent.

The early seventies saw teacher training relocated to the LTC as there was an urgent need for the equipment and space at the NTC to be better utilised. The NTC was run as an institution to provide pre-service and in-service training of junior secondary teachers, as well as graduates without formal teacher training. In 1991, the Fiji Government recommended that the NTC be reinstated and renamed as the Fiji College of Advanced Education (FCAE) to train junior secondary teachers⁴³ for Forms 1 to 4. The establishment of the institution (FCAE) was also an initiative to bridge the gap created by the post-coup exodus of teachers overseas as the result of the political upheavals of 1987 which was highlighted in the FATEP Project Implementation Document:

Between June 1987 and July 1989, over 4,400 employed persons officially migrated. This exodus depleted the country supply to a significant extent,

⁴³ Teachers who teach Forms I – 4 in the junior section of the Fiji. secondary schools

with a 16 percent of administrative/managerial personnel, 7 percent of clerical staff and 7 percent of professional/technical manpower were estimated by mid 1989.

(FATEP Project Design Document, 1990, p 21)

However following the release of a government paper in 1974, which highlighted the shortage of primary teachers, it was again decided that teacher training should be relocated to the Lautoka Teachers College in Natabua. The decision was endorsed by the two teacher unions, the Fiji Teachers Union (FTU) and the Fijian Teachers Association (FTA). Both teacher unions supported the decision by pointing out that the Job Evaluation Report of 1973 indicated that there was shortage of qualified teachers, with licensed teachers at that time comprising just 20% of the teaching force (FESP-AusAID Annual Plan 2006). This was linked to the lack of training opportunities, which was considered to be a key issue to improving the quality of basic education in Fiji.

From 1977 to 1979 both teachers' colleges (NTC and LTC) were operating simultaneously to address the shortage of qualified teachers. In 1980, the Ratu Mara⁴⁴ Alliance government decided to close the NTC and teacher training was again shifted to the LTC. The College (LTC) then began a two-year training program for licensed teachers. However there was no new intake in 1981, as the schools were well staffed with trained teachers and the school rolls had stabilised. When additional teachers were required they were trained

⁴⁴ Ratu Mara was the First Prime Minister of Fiji after independence in 1970. He was the leader of the Alliance Party which was in power for 17 years.

at the Nasinu Teachers' College and Corpus Christi Teachers' College (CCTC)⁴⁵.

The establishment of the FCAE also made up for the withdrawal of USP's Diploma in Education in 1984, and the introduction of early retirement (Nabobo, 2000). The Fiji Government's proposal for FCAE's establishment requested that the Government of Australia fund the initiative, and this was approved at the bilateral aid consultation in Fiji in 1991 (Puamau, 2005b).

Australia has been a major aid player in the Pacific, especially in relation to the Fiji education sector. Australia's was aimed at increasing access, promoting equity, and improving the quality and relevance of education and training (Downer, 2002). Australia also provided assistance in basic education, technical and vocational education, higher education, and distance education.

Since the inception of FCAE in 1991 a total of 1,838 teachers have graduated with a Diploma in Education, and an additional 1024 teachers have completed the Secondary Teacher Training Certificate (STTC)⁴⁶ programme (MOE Annual Report, 2006). The number of graduates has grown substantially from 1992 when the first 82 teachers graduated from the College. Since then, many graduates have made a significant contribution to improving the quality of

⁴⁵ Corpus Christi Teachers College is a Roman Catholic teacher training institution which was established in 1958, by the late Bishop Foley, the Archbishop of Suva. CCTC trains an average of 25 teachers annually who are posted to Catholic schools, but are paid as civil servants

⁴⁶ The STTC programme is aimed at increasing the number of qualified senior teachers (teaching forms 5 to 7) in secondary STA Home Economic schools, through the provisions of in-service programmes for graduate teachers who have no formal teacher STA Agricultural Science education. The programme was offered in November 1990 with the Government of Australia (GOA) assistance. The in-service programme is a component of the college's responsibility since 1992. (MOE Annual Report, 2006)

education. Some have further developed themselves professionally by taking advanced degree qualifications.

The Fiji-Australia Teacher Education Project (FATEP)

The FATEP was an outcome of the Fiji government's recommendation after an Identification/Preparation Mission conducted by the World Bank in June 1992 (FATEP, 1992). The Mission's purpose was to assist Fiji to begin preparation of an education and training sector investment programme including a preliminary draft for the establishment of the Fiji College of Advanced Education. One of the main objectives was the provision of pre-service and in-service teacher education to resolve the teacher shortage in the junior secondary and secondary schools that had arisen following the political instability of the 1987 coup and the teacher exodus. The political instability was quite dramatic especially to the Indo Fijians who felt threatened, which forced most of them to migrate overseas.

The aid request in the early 1990s was the outcome of an annual bilateral aid consultation. An arrangement was made whereby the Australian Government contributed A\$3.66 (US\$2.68) million and the Fiji Government contributed F\$3.6 (US\$2) million. The Fiji Government contribution included local lecturers' salaries, the development and operating costs, and the costs for the procurement of teaching materials and resources (Puamau, 2005b). The initiative was a strategic demonstration of Australia's interest in attempting to restore "normalcy" in Fiji, at the regional level and the international level (Nabobo, 2000). The Project was also synchronised with the development objectives articulated in the Fiji development plans for the 1990s.

In some regards it is surprising that such a bilateral arrangement was forged, especially considering Australia's disapproval of Fiji's undemocratic behaviour over the period during which an unelected interim government was in charge. However, according to Nabobo (2000), the project could have been used as a peace treaty between Australia and Fiji. It may also have served to signify Australia's "big brother"⁴⁷ political role in the Pacific region.

The Project Goals

The technical cooperation between the governments of Australia and Fiji in the implementation of the project resulted in the following goals:

- The development of the FCAE as a fully operational institution capable of providing pre-service and in-service teacher training.
- The development of a two-year pre-service teacher training programme for junior secondary teachers
- Consolidation and further development of in-service teacher education programmes for untrained graduates already teaching at senior level.
- Establishment of a base for further development of secondary teacher education curricula, teaching, resources, and management in a later phase activity.
- Development of particular linkages between teacher educators in Fiji and Australia.

(FATEP Project Design Document, 1990, p2).

Although the Project Design Document was prepared, there were no significant changes in the policies of either government relating to the purpose of and level of funding for the project. However the overall project goals were specifically delivered and implemented under these four main categories: overall strategy, institutional development and

⁴⁷ Australia's influence and economic assistance in the Pacific has sometimes been referred to as "Big Brother" (Kelsey, 2004)

upgrade, pre-service Junior secondary teacher education and staff professional development.

Overall Strategy

The strategy was to determine the level and timing of Australian input and activities through the development of the FATEP programme, using the limited qualified and available local staff. The staffing limitations were sharply exacerbated by the chronic shortage of high and middle level public servants which was created as a result of the salary reduction in the public service in 1988 following the 1987 coup, and the increased incentives offered by the private sector.

Institutional Development and Upgrade

The FATEP initiative transformed the NTC into the Nasinu Residential College (NRC)⁴⁸ and during the Project phase, it was converted into a fully operational institution to address the needs of the Fiji MOE. One of the main focuses of the FCAE was the two-year training through a pre-service programme for junior secondary teacher education. The other function of the project was the consolidation and development of an in-service programme for senior secondary school teachers.

The MOE commenced pre-service training in 1992, however the capital and refurbishment did not proceed until the middle of 1992 and it was not until 1993 that 199 students were enrolled. However in 1994 an additional cohort was enrolled and the student population increased to 220, without any extension to the existing laboratory and other capital infrastructure facilities. The increased college population exerted enormous pressure on the carrying capacity of the college and it was difficult to properly accommodate them.

⁴⁸ An initiative to provide accommodation for Fiji Government sponsored students to USP their foundation due to the limited boarding facilities at USP

In addition, there were a number of simultaneous capital project upgrade activities in the course of the FATEP tenure. This included the refurbishment and the extension of the library, the refurbishment of the teaching practice centre, the computer upgrade and student management system. An additional A\$130,000 was set aside in the PID for the purchase of teaching resources to cover the eleven (11) disciplines and A\$20,000 for teaching practice (Puamau, 2005).

As part of the terms of reference (TOR), USP played a pivotal role in providing commentaries on most courses. The course commentary was an exercise which was perceived to be beneficial to both the Australian consultants and their local counterparts. This collegial partnership later resulted in the award of eight cross credit units towards a degree course at the USP. This arrangement provided an incentive for FCAE graduates to pursue further study at USP and within two years complete a degree.

Pre-service Junior Secondary Teacher Education

Because of teacher emigration and ensuing shortages in 1992, the Fiji Government initiated a special training program particularly for junior secondary teachers. As the initiative was not well thought through or planned by the MOE, secondary school teachers were recruited to take up lecturer positions even though few of them had formal training. Those appointed made the most of the challenge by informally seeking help and advice from lecturers at the USP (Nabobo, 2000). Initially those who set up the programme assumed that it would be progressively refined in the course of the Project. This allowed for the FCAE staff and the Australian advisers to develop a course that was relevant to both the Fiji context and state of the art thinking in each particular field.

However the initiative lacked a specified cut-off point to indicate when the programme would cease. This was because there was a lack of detailed planning data regarding the long-term secondary teacher supply needs and preliminary enrolment projections. Consequently, after further consultation with the MOE in September 1992, more revisions were incorporated into the PDD projections (Table 6) which anticipated the pre-service intake for 1993.

Table 6
Teacher Enrolment Projections

SUBJECT AREAS	1993		1994		1995	
	Year 1	Year 2	Year 1	Year 2	Year 1	Year 2
Accounting/English		40				
Secretarial Studies			20		20	
Industrial Arts*			20		20	
Mathematics/Basic Science	34	20	30	34	30	30
Agriculture/Vernacular			20		20	20
Social Science/English	34		30	30	30	30
Home Economics	20	20		20	20	
(double)			25			
Accounting Economics	34			34		25
Students Totals x Year	122	100	145	122	140	105
Total College Enrolment	222		267		245	

FATEP Project Design Document, 1990, p 30

In recent years, the annual trend of graduate numbers from the FCAE has been consistent. As a consequence, Fiji has experienced an oversupply and a high number of unemployed teacher graduates at the junior secondary level. The problem has been aggravated by

circumstances under which school principals gave preference to USP graduates over FCAE graduates. This was because USP graduates were able to teach forms 1-7, whereas the FCAE graduates could only teach lower secondary levels up to form 4. However, FCAE graduates complemented USP graduates and brought specialised teaching and pedagogical knowledge to their teaching of forms 1 to 4.

At the beginning of every year, the MOE has to grapple with graduate placements and postings, as graduates queue at the MOE headquarters awaiting their postings. However when they are granted a posting, these FCAE graduates are not employed as civil servants, rather they are employed with a temporary teaching status. This trend has influenced some graduates to pursue further studies for degree qualifications, taking an extra four semesters or two years, which places them in a position to gain better teaching opportunities and to be granted civil servant status. In addition, students who take up this opportunity have a better chance of becoming civil servants compared to their fellow graduates from USP because former FCAE graduates have a comparative advantage owing to their teacher training.

However, the failure of the government to employ the FCAE graduates has been a concern for a number of years until the new policy of early retirement of teachers in 2009. The policy change raised concerns of teacher shortage of where some secondary trained at teachers (FCAE graduates) are posted to teach in primary schools.

Staff Professional Development

As part of the Project MOU, most of the staff members of the College benefited through some form of professional development. These staff qualification upgrades were made available in various forms, such as

an upgrade to postgraduate level through distance education scholarships and similar upgrades available through off-campus study provisions (Puamau, 2005). Provision was also made for thirty-seven (37) members of staff to be sent on one month attachments to various Australian institutions. As a result, these staff members returned with new levels of perception and improved skills and some were keen to pursue further professional development. The links and the networks they established made a huge difference to professional standards, the output of their school and agencies, and their ability to address their mandate (Bourke, 2004).

Staff members who participated in this overseas attachment have helped to keep professional standards reasonably high and have contributed to the delivery of outputs which have provided actual or potential benefits to tertiary teacher training. As a consequence, the professional upgrades of these staff members has increased their value, given them enhanced status, and promoted their marketability. While these upgrades have their positive impacts, they also have the unintended negative consequence of contributing to a high staff turnover rate. The coup in 2000 also encouraged some staff members to emigrate leaving only four of the 36 original staff in 1995. Some of these have subsequently joined the private sector or taken up positions following completion of advanced degrees at USP. Institutional knowledge has, therefore, been lost owing to migration and promotion.

Project Management

In October 1992 the Australian Government awarded the contract for project management to the Mt Gravatt Campus of Griffith University (GU). The project began later in November of the same year and it

operated for three years until the 18th of October 1995 (Puamau, 2005). A Project office was established at the FCAE under the supervision of an Australian Team Leader (ATL). The ATL liaised between the Australian Government and the Fiji Government and coordinated Australia's interest. According to one of the respondents in this study, there was obvious domination by overseas consultants at each of the various Project phases.

There was also a belief that the Government of Australia had strategically aligned its interests through the selection of Griffith University to manage the contract of the Project. This was said to be so for a number of reasons including the dominance of Australian resources in the procurement procedures for the project.

(Semi-structured interview 19th June 2007, Fiji College of Advanced Education)

It been argued that the local counterparts' roles and conditions were not clearly stipulated within the Project Implementation Document (PID, 1992) and that there was a disparity between the work conditions of local and overseas consultants due to the lack of proper consultation in the planning stage. The PID repeatedly stated that the local counterparts' terms and conditions were to change to enable them to work on a continuous basis with the overseas consultants (Nabobo, 2000). However the initial promise that the local lecturers' terms and conditions would change did not come about (Nabobo, 2000).

An example of this was that there were no incentives during the Project for the local counterparts (lecturers) to coordinate the planned teacher training course that was to be conducted over the holiday period. These local counterparts, being on teacher's conditions, were

entitled to enjoy their school holidays as civil servants. As a result the proposed programme was affected, and this in some ways interrupted their work at FCAE. This became an issue of contention because of the expectations expressed in the PID that they would forfeit their holidays and conduct the course. The lecturers expressed their disapproval of this expectation to the Teachers' Union, and the Teachers' Union supported them and defended their work conditions. As a result the Fiji Government agreed to pay the local counterparts holiday rates while they conducted the course. In such circumstances as Cole (2004) points out, despite the inequality of remuneration, Pacific Islanders generally have the ability to hide real feelings, but hurt can linger. For the local staff members, unequal and double standards were demoralising and created some negative interpersonal and worker relationships.

Economic Benefits to Australia

During the project tenure, a biased proportional engagement of overseas consultants was notable. There were eighteen consultants who were contracted on a long term basis, while six others were recruited on a short term basis. Some local consultants were contracted but were not hired under conditions and levels of remuneration anywhere near those given to foreign consultants. The local counterparts were paid according to existing teachers' pay and conditions. There was an obvious disparity and inequality in the remuneration packages of the overseas and local counterparts as shown in Table 6. The local counterparts were paid on local civil servant salary scales (Table 7). According to their declared tax returns, the overseas consultants were paid well beyond the local rate.

Table 7
Remuneration for Australian Advisors

Advisor	Amount (AUD\$)
Project Team Leader	592,000
English Language	190,000
Mathematics	180,000
Science	180,000
Social Science	179,500
Industrial Arts	183,000
Education Psychology	305,000
STA Management Systems	103,700
STA Library Management Systems	104,700
STA Accounting	35,700
STA Economics	34,600
STA Home Economics	69,700
STA Secretarial Studies	69,700
STA Agricultural Sciences	69,700
STA Physical Education, Music and Art & Craft	51,000
STA Education Psychology	70,700
STA Education Technology	70,700
STA Teaching Studies	70,700
STA Education Measurement & Evaluation	70,700
TOTAL	2,631,100

STA: Short Term Advisers and LTA Long Term Advisers were all overseas consultants.

Puamau, 2005, p 118

A substantial amount totaling A\$2,631,000 (US\$1.93million) (Table 7) was paid out in the form of remuneration to the overseas consultants.

The amount was equivalent to 72 percent of the total project aid allocation of A\$3.66 million (Puamau, 2005) and, moreover, paid tax to Australia.

Table 6 provides an analysis of the allocation of the respective cost centres involved in the project. The exorbitant (by local standards) salaries of the overseas consultant created an unfavourable work spirit among local counterparts who were paid a meager teachers' salary which was well below a quarter of the overseas consultants' pay package. According to Nabobo (2003) and Puamau (2005), aid donors should propose, though the Project TOR, for more equitable and fair remuneration of the local counterparts to acknowledge the critical role they play and the extra work involved. They should be compensated for the unique contextual and local intellectual knowledge they contribute to totality of the project. This issue could have been addressed if the FCAE staff were involved in drawing up a similar position description and engaged in the negotiation and planning phases of the Project.

Local counterparts

Unfortunately the local counterparts were not represented in the planning phases; local interests were covered by Ministry of Education head office officials from Suva. The MOE representatives were not critically aware of the many pertinent and sensitive issues encountered by staff of the College. This included issues such as salaries and work conditions of the local counterparts drawn from Teachers' Colleges staff. As a consequence, MOE representatives were not in a position to negotiate fair terms for local counterparts, and after the MOU was signed it was claimed that no further negotiation was possible. However the civil servant salary structure shows the

disparity and the subsequent marginalisation of the local staff at FCAE. The tertiary teacher salary structure (Table 7) is similar to the LTC annual salary scale which is discussed in chapter 7.

Table 8
Local Staff Annual Salaries

Teaching Position	Annual Salary Range (F\$)
Principal (ED1F)	\$43,000 – 48,500
Vice Principal (ED2D)	\$34,000 – 38,500
Head of School(ED3C)	\$30,000 – 36, 500
Senior Lecturer(ED4C)	\$26,000 – 28, 500
Lecturer (ED5E)	\$24,000 – 27, 500

(Fiji Teachers Confederation, Job Evaluation Agreement 1993, (1998) p15)

In this case, local staff were paid less than a third of their overseas counterparts. The disparity of salary and the associated marginalisation of the local staff raised a lot of issues concerning double standards pertaining to different contractual arrangements of remuneration packages for overseas consultants and local counterparts - for similar work.

Aid Components

Regarding the other aid components, it was apparent that a substantial amount of the A\$3.66 million was repatriated for the benefit of the Australian Government in the form of taxes and salaries of overseas consultants (see Table 8 below). This is a prime example

of what Baba referred to as “boomerang aid”. Baba (1989) argues the importance of getting beyond the rhetoric, emphasising that this is necessary in order to analyse and review the current aid policies of aid donors. Baba further argues there is an urgent need to put in place equitable and sustainable arrangements for a high proportion of the bilateral funding to benefit the recipient country. In this case, aid to tertiary institutions should be reviewed to ensure that it fully acknowledges the additional effort made by local counterparts and the local institutions as a whole (Baba, 1989).

Apart from the exorbitant remuneration paid to the overseas consultants, there were other perks and favourable conditions which the overseas consultants enjoyed and which were not available to local counterparts. These included staying in one of the most expensive hotels, in-country travel, and the provision of Australian support services. In total, these expenses comprised 71.9 percent (71.9%) of the total aid package (Table 9). In comparison with the amount paid for local counterparts’ contributions, these discrepancies and the inequality of standards has continually raised questions and provoked negative responses from local staff. In addition, the consultants’ work conditions and use of the project vehicle during weekends raised the question of whether this weekend use was relevant to project business or was specifically for the leisure use of the consultants – in particular the project team leader.

Table 9

Australian Aid Component of FATEP – Economic Benefits to Australia or Australian Counterparts

Item	Activity	Amount (\$A)	Total Aid (Percentage)
1	Remuneration package for 19 advisors See Table 1 for detail	\$2,631,100	71.9
2	Attachments for 37 staff in Australia @ \$5,000 each	\$185,000	5.1
3	Postgraduate distance education scholarship for 9 staff in Australia	\$80,000	2.2
4	Off campus study for postgraduate distance education scholarship for #3 above	\$40,000	1.1
5	Accommodation for short term advisors (Travelodge)	\$45,600	1.2
6	Baggage insurance for long term advisors	\$6,000	0.2
7	Project administrator	\$36,000	1.0
8	Project office equipment	\$10,000	0.3
9	Pre-service teaching practice supervision (accommodation and local travel for Australian Advisors)	\$15,200	0.4
10	In-service teaching practice supervision	\$2,400	0.1
11	Operating cost	\$71,500	2.0
12	Project vehicle which FCAE inherited at the end of the project	\$25,000	0.7
13	Vehicle operating cost and internal travel	\$72,800	2
14	In-country travel	\$37,200	1.0
15	Provision of Australian support services	\$208,700	5.7
16	Coordinating and consulting visits by ATL project coordinator	\$25,000	0.7
	Total	\$3,491,500	95.4

Puamau, 2005, p 122

Distribution of Aid Money

In analysing Table 8, it is obvious that very little of the aid funding remained in Fiji. A substantial amount of the total aid allocation did

not leave Australian shores as it was retained in the form of salaries and wages, taxes, and procurement of resources. Such practices raised concerns about the actual proportion of aid funds allocated to the implementation of the core objectives of the project. In the FATEP case, less than 10 per cent of the total aid funding directly benefited the functional and core objectives of the institution. Although other components of the aid allocation are also important, the core functional role of the institution and the project objective requires special attention. According to Puamau (2005), with 95 per cent of AusAID funding going back to Australia, it was obvious that the donor country benefited significantly from the FATEP initiative.

Although the Australian consultants may have had necessary expertise in project management and course design, the contribution of local lecturers' expert local institutional knowledge and cultural understanding cannot be underestimated. FCAE staff members complemented the role of the foreigners, and what they added to course reviews during the initiative was invaluable. Not surprisingly it is perceived injustice that locals were not compensated with any bonus allowance despite the extra effort and work they put into making sure the investment worked.

Basic Education Management Teacher Upgrading Project – LTC

The BEMTUP operated from July 1996 to December 2001 under the management of Griffith University. According to Coxon (2000: 394), the project had two major strands both based on a World Bank Appraisal Report of 1994. The BEM strand concerned with the education management, while the TUP consists of two components; the in-service and pre-service. The objectives of the Project were to:

- Upgrade 440 Classes 7 and 8 teachers in four core subject areas (Mathematics, English Science and Social Science;
- Provide Classes 7 and 8 pupils with texts in the four subject areas;
- Upgrade upper primary service elements if the LTC certificate of education; and
- Strengthen the capacity of research and development section of the MOE through training and equipment upgrade in order to enhance the ability to provide information to policy makers and planners.

AusAID LTCUP Revised Project Design Document, 2004 p. 15

By the conclusion of the project BEMTUP had graduated a total of 336 primary teachers and upgraded over 80 teachers through distance education delivery mode. The project initiated the traditional approach to learning through the use of questioning techniques, class-based activities and group work, and through focusing on a more participatory approach to learning where the certificate programme in the four core curriculum areas had an overall revision. The contribution of BEMTUP allowed the shift in the change in teaching methodology in Fiji through the provision of equipment and resources which include a photocopier, three overhead projectors, five computers, teaching material and library resources which supported the four upper primary curriculum units.

Despite the resource constraints, The MOE ensures the sustainable of the AusAID project and the delivery of BEMTUP, teacher in-service has continued after the completion of external funding. Fortunately the LTCUP initiative (which will be discussed in the next chapter)

complimented the gaps and supported to sustain the BEMTUP procured resources.

Conclusion

Equitable and proper investment and distribution of aid resources has been a matter of concern for many years. Sanga (2005) has dwelt on the nature of uneven playing fields where donor countries benefit more than recipient countries, a situation which Baba refers to as “boomerang aid”. Clearly then, as illustrated by these background studies, there is an urgent need to revisit established aid arrangements, to return to the drawing board, and to renegotiate how benefits are delivered, for what, and for whom. There is also a need to improve relationships between aid partners to ensure “win-win” situations. The next chapter, draws on the LTC case study - the upgrade of the Lautoka Teachers College through the LTCUP initiative further explores how effective the aid delivery mechanism process.

Chapter 6

Lautoka Teachers College Upgrading Project (LTCUP)

Aid donor and recipient partners need to be involved in the aid input throughout the aid delivery processes (Design & Planning, Implementation, Evaluation and Review) to enhance the commitment and ownership to assure the sustainability of the aid programme.

(Perry Gabriel, Head of School, Physical Education, Music, Art, and Craft, Lautoka Teachers College, interview, 2007.)

Introduction

In the previous chapter I reviewed as background information the experiences of the Fiji College of Advanced Education with the AusAID funded project FATEP in the early 1990s and the BEMTUP initiative at LTC during the mid 1990s. I highlighted the ways in which the delivery of aid was managed and some of their education achievements and impacts. This chapter reviews the implementation of the Lautoka Teachers College Upgrading Project (LTCUP) as a case study. Through the analysis project I will reconstruct the way aid was delivered by each of the two major aid donors, the EU and AusAID. As in the previous chapter, I will discuss the financial arrangements such as procurement and consultation services. I will also reflect on discussions concerning FATEP held in the early 1990s and focus particularly on the lessons learnt.

Lautoka Teachers College

History and Background

The College is located at Natabua which is about 4 kilometers away from Lautoka City. It was established in 1929 and at the time was

known as the Natabua Teachers' Training Institute (NTTI). Teachers were trained at NTTI until 1940 when training was suspended because of the Second World War. Teacher training was temporarily shifted to the Methodist Training Institution in Davuilevu near Suva. This relocation became permanent when the government decided to establish the Nasinu Teachers' College (NTC). These sites are shown on the Fiji map (Figure 1).

In 1974, the decision to resume teacher training at Natabua was made following the release of a government paper which highlighted the shortage of primary teachers. The two teacher unions (FTA & FTU) contributed to the decision by initiating a job evaluation. The Job Evaluation Report of 1973 documented a shortfall in the number of qualified teachers. This was linked to the lack of training opportunities and licensed teachers⁴⁹, twenty percent (20%) of the teaching force. Lack of trained staff was identified as the key obstacle to providing basic education quality to Fiji.

In 1977, the government resumed teacher training at the LTC to address the growing demand for primary teachers. An upgrade initiative was funded by the British Government in a development programme of three phases. The first phase involved providing sufficient classrooms and other facilities to enable the college to offer a one-year course for non-residential students. The second phase saw the expansion of the teaching facilities and construction of hostels, dining hall, kitchen, and sick bay. However for some unknown reason, the third phase which would have seen the building of a women's accommodation block and a multipurpose hall was not implemented. Fortunately part of this incomplete phase was

⁴⁹ Licensed teachers are teachers with a special license to teach but may not necessarily have gone through teacher training.

subsequently picked up by the LTCUP. This is discussed later in this chapter.

In 1980 the College began a two-year training programme for licensed teachers. However in 1981 there were no new intakes as the school rolls had stabilised, there were enough trained teachers, and the schools were well staffed with qualified teachers trained at Nasinu Teachers' College (NTC) and Corpus Christi College Teachers' College (CCTC).

By the end of 1982, there were enough of trained teachers to meet the demand, so the Ministry of Education decided that NTC was no longer needed and it was closed. All pre-service primary teacher training was then shifted to the Lautoka Teachers' College.

After the 1987 coup⁵⁰, the intake of students at Lautoka doubled. The shortage of teachers arose as a consequence of the mass migration of teachers overseas. As a quick fix in 1998, the MOE recruited teacher trainees from among school leavers and assigned them to teaching positions without any teacher training.

In the second term of school in 2009, close to 1000 teachers retired when the "55" retirement age policy came to effect. The new policy was designed to employ more unemployed educated graduates. However the demand raised similar problems of teacher shortage. Again, as a similar quick fix in the coup of 1987, 150 second year students of LTC were sent out to their respective education districts to teach and alleviate the teacher shortage. Some of the FCAE graduates were posted to teach in the primary schools as it was the most

⁵⁰ This was the first coup which was staged by Lt Col Sitiveni Rabuka on May 14th 1987.

affected section of the education system. One raises the competency of these secondary teacher graduates teaching in the primary schools and its detrimental implications.

Role of Government in the LTCUP Preparation

According to the FIEC, Coxon, (2000: 401) highlighted the need for holistic and systematic policy and planning in an area of teacher education in Fiji both pre-service and in-service which the MOE does not have the capacity to undertake. The Education Commission report also noted that the administrative system of the government institutions had limitations in the development of teacher education programmes under the control of teacher educators. Similarly the development of a proper career path for teacher educators as professional group with appropriate terms and conditions of employment has been constrained as well (Coxon: 401).

The establishment of the LTCUP was part of a broader programme of educational reform in Fiji under which focus was placed on providing a basic education of quality as the key to unlocking human potential. LTCUP was the outcome of an MOE request to AusAID for assistance to upgrade the programme, staff, and management of LTC. AusAID support for an LTC Upgrade Project (LTCUP) was intended to proceed in 2000. However the Speight Coup⁵¹ in that year resulted in a delay. The principal objective of the project was to contribute to the achievement of quality education for all children in Fiji through the provision of effective teachers at the primary and early childhood levels. The focus was to strengthen the foundation years of education in Fiji through the 'the crucial role of laying the foundation in basic education for the nation's children' and to encourage a much more

⁵¹ Civilian coup on May, 14th 2000.

closer relationship between ECE and the early primary years in terms of pedagogical approaches and parent involvement (Coxon, 2000: 69).

By this time the GOF request for education assistance had been written into the Australia-Fiji Country Programme Strategy⁵² which officially acknowledged that education was a major building block for social and economic development (Downer, 2004). Education had long been a focus of Australia's aid to Fiji as a means of poverty alleviation, with particular emphasis being placed on basic education. The Australian Government White Paper⁵³ (2006) on overseas aid reinforced the need to focus on education (and, within this, primary education in particular) and forecast significantly increased expenditure over the coming years.

In December 1999, the then Fiji Minister for Education appointed a six member Fiji Islands Education Commission with three external members and three members from Fiji. The Commissioners reviewed and evaluated Fiji's education system to identify development priorities and means of improving the standard and quality of education. Its final 515-page report was published in November 2000 and titled *Learning Together: Directions for Education in the Fiji Islands - Report of the Fiji Islands Education Commission/Panel* (FIEC)

Based on the FIEC findings, the Governments of Fiji and Australia agreed to field a Planning Mission to identify activities and projects to support the efforts of the Ministry of Education Youth and Sport

⁵² Australian aid program advances Australia's interest in assisting developing countries to reduce poverty and achieve sustainable development

⁵³ 'Australian Aid: Promoting Growth and Stability': A White Paper on the Australian Government's Overseas Aid Program, April 2006.

(MoEYS)⁵⁴. This Mission was fielded in February 2002. Education stakeholders were widely consulted and key documents reviewed. Subsequently AusAID engaged the services of a specialist to incorporate the findings of the Mission into a Design Document for a Fiji Education Sector Program (FESP). AusAID's emphasis on basic education was aimed at giving all children the opportunity to acquire the knowledge and skills necessary to develop their potential (Downer, 2004). Given that Fiji had attained near universal access to basic education with a literacy rate of over ninety three percent (93%) (UNDP, 1999; Sanga, 2005), the emphasis was on the next step, a child-centred education that would give all children, whether academically inclined or not, the basic foundation to enable them to pursue their own development and interests. The challenge presented was considerable. Despite a well established network of schools, there was also a vast disparity in the quality of education between urban and rural schools (FIEC, 2000). Even with urban areas, there were schools which met "First World" standards alongside schools that were desperately under-resourced (FIEC, 2000). However two notable recommendations were raised in the FIEC (2000)

- Pre service and in-service training programme for teacher must incorporate the range of teaching strategies identified as effective for multi-grade, and therefore, all classrooms. In the case of externally funded projects in teacher education, this must be a central requirement.
- The primary curriculum, be remodelled to allow for more flexibility for individual schools and teachers, the incorporation of more local cultural knowledge,

⁵⁴ At the time the agency was the *Ministry of Education* but became MOEYS in May 2006 after the General Election in Fiji.

particularly indigenous knowledge, more integration of subject areas across the curriculum.

(Coxon, 2000, p 91)

These two recommendations have been integrated to guide the direction of educational aid to teacher education during the 2000 aid initiatives like the LTCUP.

Rationale of LTCUP Initiative

The LTCUP was scheduled to be implemented over a period of three years and eight months which included a design phase. The project was set up in such a way as to allow for the maximum involvement of relevant stakeholders in the design process; it also allowed for a range of “interim” implementation activities. The major activities were intended to inform the project design in one of three ways:

- To provide an explicit input into project design, through clarification of issues and the development of appropriate project response strategies;
- To initially make a specific contribution to program and course review and in so doing, provide clarification on strategies, objectives, timeframes and resource requirements for the project proper; and
- To encourage positive shifts in institutional structure, culture and teaching practice activities during the project implementation phase that would lead to sustainable results.

(AusAID LTCUP Revised Project Design Document, 2004, p.28)

Other interim activities emerged out of the collaborative development including an option which proposed that LTC play a role in the provision of a qualification for in-service teacher training that could be initiated by a MOE request. The option for in-service training illustrated how project design could be adjusted to fit the dynamic nature of the context. The interim activities also influenced the development of Project components and led to Project objectives being refined accordingly.

Project Goal and Purpose

The LTCUP entered the planning and designing phase in November 2002. This phase continued through to October 2003. This phase of work was carried out by Dr Jim Cameron, the initial Project Team Leader (PTL), and Ms. Karen Munce, a curriculum design specialist. The implementation phase commenced in November 2003 and continued through to June 2006. Griffith University undertook the initial and interim implementation. ACIL subsequently reviewed the design and was assigned to manage implementation. It was not long after this change of contractor that the initial PTL resigned and John Short, initially hired as a practicum consultant, was appointed to the position.

The project goal was to contribute to the achievement of a quality education for all children in Fiji through the provision of effective teachers at the primary and early childhood levels. This was to address the need for quality education by strengthening the quality of teacher education courses at the LTC, as highlighted in the FIEC (2000). To achieve these goals the project channeled their efforts into four broad components.

Component 1: Leadership and Management Development.

One of the ten key objectives in the MOE Strategic Plan 2003-2005, which had direct implications for the LTC, was “Developing and supporting a professional teaching force” (MOE Strategic Plan 2003 - 2005). There was an urgent need to strengthen the policy, planning, management, and administrative capacity of the LTC.

In the course of project implementation extensive improvements in the LTC activities were achieved, particularly in the areas of financial and student services, by computerising activities which in the past had been undertaken manually. This change allowed for increased flexibility and the setting up of a database from which to generate financial reports and analyse expenditure trends. The LTCUP supported the LTC to:

- I. Upgrade management and administration skills through the implementation of policy, planning, management, and administrative training activities as identified in the training plan
- II. Procure resource and equipment for LTC management, administration and student services as identified in the procurement plan
- III. Upgrade LTC monitoring and control of its financial management system, where the principal and the Bursar and two staff will be trained in its use
- IV. Develop and implement a computer-based student management system, which will record a student's details from the point of applying for admission to exit upon graduation.

(AusAID LTCUP Revised Project Design Document, 2004, p31)

The improved administrative system raised the efficiency and the effectiveness of the management and financial records, the student support services (warden /counselor), and a tutor system to support

the student council involvement for all sections (class) groups, and residential students. With the increase in the number of students living on campus the improvements were timely.

Component 2: Curriculum Development

The current curriculum was regarded as limited and excessively teacher and textbook-centred and exam-oriented. These limitations had previously been highlighted in the Fiji Islands Education Report (2000). During the preparation of the Annual Plan, the Curriculum Development Unit indicated its willingness to pilot innovative approaches to curriculum along the lines of the outcomes-based Key Learning Areas (KLA) model. A key feature of this activity was to build on previous assistance under the Basic Education Management Teacher Upgrade Project (BEMTUP) which initiated the need for change towards inquiry-based learning. However there was also a need to improve curriculum relevance and flexibility which were both identified by the MOE as one of the top priorities

As part of institutional strengthening, the LTCUP enhanced the capacity of the LTC to develop a new curriculum at early childhood and primary school levels and started this by upgrading the existing curriculum. As it was aligned to the MOE's Strategic Plan, 2003-2005, which identified the need for the "upgrade of pre-service teachers' program to embrace change and innovation", the initiative was well received. This was a strategic activity carried out through the continuous upgrading of the teacher training curriculum in support of the curriculum development component of the LTCUP goals and purposes.

Component 3: Resource Development

In any tertiary institution, support resources are crucial to the delivery of the core objectives. There was a great demand to strengthen the capacity of the LTC through the following support services:

Implementation of a library management system

The library management at LTC demanded numerous linked activities and the primary need was for the appointment of a qualified (trained) librarian and an assistant. These were critical appointments. Two well qualified people were expected to take responsibility for the management of the library. While they were working their way into this job they would undergo further training that would enable them to introduce a computerised library management system that was appropriate, affordable, and sustainable. A review of the *LTC IT Requirements and Management System* led to the installation of a computerised library management system in April 2003 with approval and endorsement of the MOE (AusAID LTCUP Revised PDD, 2004).

Library resources for the new curricula

When the LTC courses and curriculum were upgraded, other major related activities included in the procurement of resources for the library and specific needs identified within each of the programmes were addressed. The need to process and maintain the resources committed to the creation of a model curriculum laboratory were also met. Unfortunately, because there was a delay in finalising the appointment of the LTC librarian, procurement of library

books and other resources was also delayed. Despite the Australian Managing Contractor's repeated request to the MOE for the appointment of a suitable officer, it was delayed. This had financial implications which required action on the part of the GOF and had to do with meeting MOF rules governing the civil servant establishment. The proposed appointment would have required a special budgetary allocation that needed to be approved by parliament. Unfortunately, this procedural matter stalled and delayed the setting up of the new library and the appointment of qualified staff.

Staff Capacity for the management of LTC library

During the LTCUP, the new double storey library was constructed (Figure 6). This was a great asset and a huge advance for the institution. However, its effective utilisation depended heavily on the availability of the skills, capacity, and experience of the proposed librarians. To facilitate this, the project also provided opportunities for appropriate training which included on-the-job training assignments and qualification upgrades as a component of staff development. Basic training was given in computer use and library management skills. This included the senior librarian as well. In addition the LTCUP also developed and implemented a library resource procurement plan which monitored and evaluated the use of library resources by staff and students.

Figure 6 - New Library Block

Up-skilling of LTC staff to use and maintain Information Technology System (ITS)

The LTC was essentially a non-electronic working environment equipped with minimal IT services through the BEMTUP which quickly dated and at their best were not very reliable. There was no local area network and no computerised system to link the office and the library. However, during the LTCUP a milestone was reached at LTC in terms of IT systems. The institution was very proud to possess one of the state of the art IT centres in the Western educational division. The initiative involved the LTC's IT management and a maintenance strategy centred on the creation of two IT support positions. This included the management and maintenance of both the administration

server and the PC laboratory system. To support the management and the maintenance of the PC lab system, two LTC staff members, one academic and a technician, undertook a forty week formal training programme in first-line maintenance and the broader aspects of computing. Another academic staff member was trained in advanced computing techniques. To support this initiative an additional position was included in the LTC and MOE budget request for the financial year 2006. IT support personnel then formed an LTC IT Management Computer Users' Committee with representatives drawn from all functional areas of the College. They laid down the following primary responsibilities:

- Development and updating of LTC IT Policy and associated procedures;
- Development of the content of courses relating primarily to computing for both staff and students, and the development of the IT component in overall training;
- Management and staffing of the PC laboratory, including succession planning; and
- Purchase of computing equipment and services, including software.

(AusAID LTCUP Revised Project Design Document, 2004, p 36)

The guidelines and the policies developed by the IT committee covered areas such as the use of computing facilities by staff and students; the rules governing internet access; criteria for and protocols applying to access to the student management system; and equipment maintenance and replacement. The IT Committee support personnel were also assisted by a technical specialist contracted to develop the student management and

library management systems. Greg Shaw of Firth Stuart University of Australia was appointed as a short-term ICT (Computer) consultant. As the IT was a high investment area, there were associated risks, however there were strategies put in place to minimise the risks through in-house training of key IT personnel, investment in a broad-based training of all staff and students, the sourcing of equipment from established local suppliers with service records, and the empowering of a group of experienced computer users to develop and implement LTC's IT management framework. To assist in containing increases in recurrent IT related costs, access to the internet was restricted to staff only and computers were only placed in offices of the Heads of School (HOS). The upgrade of the LTC by the EU and the AusAID through the LTCUP provided an enormous potential opportunity for significant income generation through the hiring out of the facilities to people who wanted to conduct short courses. This had the potential to offset the increase in LTC IT recurrent costs.

Installation and operation of computing resources

To cater for the large numbers of students in the courses, there was an urgent need for two student computer laboratories. A special request was made to the EU for what was then the proposed new library to be the first building to be constructed. This made it possible for PC laboratories to be installed in the old library building. Once this building was reconstructed, the LTCUP procured the IT computing equipment for staff and students through AusAID. The Project was also responsible for the provision of appropriate training opportunities for both staff and students to ensure the effective and smooth operation of the new computer

laboratories. However the proposed timeframe for these events was not met and the project was delayed as a result of the controversial cultural issues surrounding the location of the new library building site. Most of the LTC staff and students objected to the proposed library site which is of great significance as it is the *rara* where cultural activities are held.

Component 4: Project Management

Project management is a crucial component of any aid delivery process. The competence of managers determines how effectively and efficiently the project is implemented. Five guidelines were put in place to guide the LTCUP aid delivery process:

Establishment of effective project management procedures and systems

In the LTCUP, a management structure was developed and a Project Monitoring and Management Group (PMMG) set up as the controlling body. The PMMG liaised with representatives of various stakeholders⁵⁵ who met twice annually to review and report on progress to the GOA. Great emphasis was placed on assurance of quality at three levels; namely the system level, programme level, and input level. Between them these levels allowed for on-going assessment of the effectiveness and the efficiency of the impact of the project.

⁵⁵ Ministry of Finance & National Planning (MOF & NP), Public Service Commission, Lautoka Teachers College (LTC) and its Board of Governors, Ministry of Education (MOE), AusAID, the Project Leader (PL), Technical Director (TD), European Union (EU), Fiji Education Sector Programme (FESP) Programme Manager, and other bodies which the GOF nominated to be appropriate stakeholders

Establishment of effective relationships maintained between MOE, LTC AUSAID, AMC and other stakeholders

Forging and establishing good rapport is important for creating an effective relationship among stakeholders in any project delivery. In the LTCUP, the PL established communication processes and held regular meetings with all the main education sector donors throughout the year. The monthly meetings facilitated regular interaction in addition to the formal donor coordination meetings. Both these meetings provided useful forums for cross-representation on FESP and LTCUP PMMG concerns. Though such meetings were crucial and were sometimes difficult to arrange, the expense and inconvenience were considered to be worthwhile.

Submission of timely and accurate project reports and annual plans

The LTCUP annual planning cycle was aligned with that of FESP as the MOE formal donor coordinating unit. The FESP (AusAID) aligned itself with MOE and LTC corporate planning cycle in order to incorporate key objectives of the LTCUP plan. The reports, which were produced quarterly, recorded the implementation progress for the period. They highlighted the significant issues that had emerged and the strategies proposed to address them. The report also summarised expenditure for the period together with the attached milestone payment documentation as required.

Production of sustainable project outcomes

The team that monitored project implementation and assessed the quality of sustainable strategies provided feedback to the stakeholders on outcomes and subsequent plans. These observations were included in the quarterly report. Although the reports were systematically reported and evaluated, the process lacked balance; not all LTC staff members were able to raise their concerns. Although meals served to Heads of Schools (HOS) enabled them to discuss issues arising out of the implementation process these events failed to address weaknesses. As it is culturally inappropriate to criticise someone who serves you food, contentious matters were put aside. Consequently such meetings were rarely critical of Project developments.

Project Management and Implementation

In May 2003, AusAID contracted Cardno ACIL⁵⁶ and they took over the responsibility for the overall direction of the project and the required services. A contract to this effect was signed between ACIL and the GOF (client). The partner agencies for LTCUP implementation were the Fiji MOE and LTC as the primary implementation agencies acting for the Government of Fiji. Other agencies also had a role including the Western Australian Department of Education and Training (WADET) and Curtin University of Technology (CUT). They were subsequently appointed to manage implementation of the Project on behalf of the Government of Australia (GOA). However, at the outset LTCUP was directly managed by an Australian Project Leader

⁵⁶ At the time Cardno Acil was known as ACIL the Managing Contracting Company for the LTCUP.

(PL) and overseen by a Technical Director (TD) provided by WADET. There were some differences of approach encountered in the implementation process. According to one of the senior staff:

Initially the LTCUP was managed by the Project Leader (PL) who was based in LTC. From July 2006 they did not have a full time leader based at LTC but were managed by FESP, and based in Suva. At first we used to work independently, separate from FESP project. With the new arrangement LTCUP has been absorbed into the FESP to manage it. Now with the current (2006) arrangement we have to write letters to Suva. We go through all the bureaucratic processes for approval which is neither economical nor efficient as it may be viable for FESP for centralisation but it is not practical for LTC. They use the excuse that the LTCUP will eventually take on board the responsibility to operate on its own. Now that the project has been extended for another two years, the FESP officers are not really familiar with what is really happening in the LTC. The current arrangement (2006) has given more work LTC administrators which use to be done by the PL. I don't feel comfortable directing the consultants as I am not in a position to tell them what to do. There is no one to monitor their work. When the PL was here, the consultants were busy because their work was closely monitored. Now the consultants are more or less doing what they wish. Although there is a term of reference (TOR) it is difficult to know what is happening.

(Semi-structured interview (*Talanoa*) 6th March 2007, Fiji College of Advance Education)

Clearly, although the project was already in the implementation phase and there were urgent administrative and procedural issues to attend to, front line staff on site lacked decision-making authority, different parties followed different bureaucratic procedures, and expectations were constantly frustrated. Individuals involved frequently found themselves at loggerheads.

Local Staff Development

There were a number of initiatives established during the LTCUP to enhance the capacity and performance of LTC staff. A budget of AUD\$400,000.000 was allocated for a training plan. A Professional Development Committee (PDC) was set up to plan and approve specific training needs to support overall LTC development together with appropriate staff training. The purpose of the committee was to enhance the efficiency and effectiveness of its management and administrative functions. The PDC is guided by the broad principles of staff development where all members of LTC have access to staff development programmes and opportunities through various forms which include:

- Conference attendance
- Workshop attendance, locally, nationally, or internationally
- Short courses (non-award)
- Short course (award bearing)
- Work-based attachment
- Approved academic study programmes

Steady progress was made during 2005. Plans were evaluated regularly and the assurance that the training provided was aligned with College requirements and needs stipulated by the MOE in conjunction with the FIEC were forthcoming. This training was carried out through:

- i. Activities including computer awareness training for all staff, on the job training in academic research techniques, formal training in supervision and assessment to support students on practicum.
- ii. Seminars and workshops were conducted for the staff on a regular basis both by the consultants, staff of the college and the LTC Upgrade Team Leader.

- iii. Twenty nine (29) academic and 4 support staff undertaken various tertiary award programmes funded by the project. Nineteen (19) of the staff were enrolled in the USP's Graduate Certificate in Tertiary Teaching and will completed the programme in June 2005.

(AusAID LTCUP Revised Project Design Document, 2004, p. 2)

Apart from programmes in which all staff members were involved, there were some training initiatives and programmes which were specifically tailored for the senior staff of the college. This was not well received by most staff members because they had reservations about the criteria used to select staff assigned to training opportunities.

The PDC could only recommend staff for training and development; final approval for the release of funds was determined by the Project Leader. Unfortunately the training policy was not always followed by the PL who had significant influence and determined most of training according to his discretion. One disgruntled staff member expressed the opinion that some of the initiatives were focused on a privileged group of College staff:

There are a lot of good ideas among ordinary people like me but our voices have not been really well articulated and there is no forum for recognition.

(Semi-structured interview (*Talanoa*) 28th March 2007, Fiji College of Advanced Education)

Although most of the staff members benefited from the LTCUP training programmes, there was a high turnover rate of staff was experienced. Some have either left the institution or migrated overseas because they are more qualified and have the potential to

meet the demands for lucrative opportunities and better employment conditions.

The students also raised a number of issues but little was forthcoming in terms of the concerns they raised:

All the time we raise issues to the principal and the consultants regarding our access to the library, they give us all sorts of stories to justify their excuses. We are frustrated.

(Semi-structured interview (*Talanoa*) 27 April, 2007, Lautoka Teachers College)

The students were caught in the transition period of the LTCUP, however in some ways were frustrated because there some external bureaucratic decisions stalled the project which were beyond the aid donors control causing them to be frustrated with the government system as well.

LTCUP Implementation Costs

In the course of the LTCUP implementation, no locals were engaged as advisers and a substantial amount of money paid to the Australian consultants hired to provide long term (LT) and short term (ST) technical assistance (TA) for the duration of their input as shown in Table 10. All the advisers were from different Australian institutions. As discussed in Chapters seven (7) and eight (8), the absence of local consultants has critical bearing on the ownership and the sustainability of the Project. However, one notable improvement over the FATEP project needs to be acknowledged; some of the equipment

and library resources were purchased from local companies and IT distributors. This placed responsibility for servicing and replacement in local hands and boosted the local economy.

Table 10
Implementation Phase Costs

Code	Category	Description
PAF	Technical Assistance	40.5 per person month of short term TA (excluding Project Management) with allowance for 2 months of unallocated TA
TAO	Overseas Training	Provision for study tour for 4 senior staff of LTC to visit West Australian Educational Agencies
TAF	In-Fiji Training	Provision of extensive training of LTC counterparts and staff through various workshops and on-the-job-training.
EAF	Procurement	Procurement to facilitate the development of computerised administrative and library systems, and upgrade of other teaching/learning resources

(AusAID LTCUP Revised Project Design Document, 2004, p.38)

However the example did not include the procurement of air-conditioning which was installed to prolong the life of the IT equipment which was procured from Australia. It was also anticipated that this too would require some maintenance. There were also other recurrent costs for consumables such as power, toner, and electricity. These recurrent costs were as estimated as shown in Table 11 below.

Table 11
Summary of Anticipated Recurrent Costs

Cost Item	Estimated Cost (F\$)
Maintenance of computing equipment (beyond that provide by the first line computing support staff)	\$5,000 per year (5 days @ \$1000 per day)
Funding for increased power consumption by computers and air conditioners	\$5,800 per year
Toner cartridges for printers	\$5,000 per year
Internet access for staff	\$16,200 per year
Sub- Total	\$32,000 per year
Teaching Practicum	\$30,000
Printing	\$7,500
Subject reference Groups	\$7,500
Vehicle running and maintenance costs (\$5000 per month)	\$6,000
Sub Total	\$51, 000 per year
Total	\$83, 000 per year

(Source: AusAID LTCUP Revised Project Design Document 2004, p. 39)

Through a MOE, directive, the Principal of the LTC made a formal submission to the MOF as part of the annual budgetary process to meet recurrent costs. The anticipated total cost of F\$83,000.00 has not been readily available from the government and the situation has been exacerbated by the downturn of the economy and the global recession (Table 10).

The ongoing challenge of meeting recurrent costs presents a huge problem. One of the proposed solutions put forward by one of the Senior Education Officers (SEO) and canvassed by the LTC was the

retention of income generated by hiring out the use of the new facilities once the EU building programme was completed. It was emphasised that failure by the MOE to secure the recurrent budget provision from the MOF would result in the following negative impacts on Project sustainability:

- Reduction in the operational life of the computer;
- Staff internet access will be terminated (or replaced by user-pay strategy);
- Library services will be curtailed;
- Expanded teaching practice (and related enhancement of student teacher preparedness to teach in remote rural locations) will be diminished; and
- Institutional linkages created through the Project will be weakened.

(AusAID LTCUP Revised Project Design Document, 2004, p.39)

In the course of the LTCUP it was pointed out that if the high level of recurrent cost was not addressed there was a major risk to Project sustainability⁵⁷. This depended to some extent on the robustness of the design and the capacity of the IT equipment to survive the humid conditions of Lautoka. The soaring recurrent cost of operating IT consumables was a major concern. On-going financial support from the MOF was a critical factor in the question of whether the LTC was to be sustainable.

LTCUP Technical Assistance Cost Schedule

The consultancy services provided through technical assistance (TA) commenced in 1st July, 2003 and were scheduled to continue for a period of thirty-six (36) months. Work was undertaken within the

⁵⁷ This is elaborated in Chapter 8

broader context of educational reform in Fiji focused on the provision of improving the quality of basic education. There were seventeen (17) overseas TAs, all from various Australian universities with varying numbers of input months, as shown in Table 12 below, with the PL⁵⁸ claiming the most input months followed by the Technical Director (TD).

The availability of local expertise was entirely ignored and as a consequence the unit cost was particularly high (Table 12). The exclusion of locals proved to have a negative bearing on the ownership and sustainability of the project as discussed in detail in chapters eight (8) and nine (9).

A detail of the TAs as shown in Appendix VIII, highlights the varied range of tasks and indicators and means of verification used which included:

- Annual and quarterly Progress reports to be submitted on time and to the agreed standard;
- LTC submits a corporate Plan and Annual Budget for the MOE for Year 2006;
- Develop and implement effective project procedures with regard to quality assurance, risk management, sustainability, gender equity, asset registration, financial management and accounting and supervision of locally-engaged support staff.

(AusAID Revised Project Design Document, 2004, Annex 8, p. 2)

⁵⁸ The Project Leader (PL) is responsible for providing effective and efficient management, including financial and human resource management, to the Project. The PL also provides technical knowledge and skills to the LTC Principal and senior staff to improve the LTC's policy, planning, and management capacity.

Table 12
LTCUP Technical Assistance Allocation
and Personnel Cost Schedule

Position Title	Long Term or Short Term	Total Inputs (Months) Includes inputs prior to November 2003	Unit Cost (AUD)/ month	Total AUD \$
Project Leader	LTA	36	N/A	N/A
Technical Director	MGT	9	N/A	N/A
Educational Specialist	LTA	6	23,275	139,650
Curriculum Adviser Languages (English & Vernacular)	STA	4	29,486	95,380
Curriculum Adviser- Science	STA	4	29,486	95,380
Curriculum Adviser- Social Science	STA	3	29,486	66,344
Curriculum Adviser- Mathematics	STA	3	29,486	66,344
Early Childhood Education (ECE) Adviser	STA	3	29,486	66,344
Curriculum Adviser Art & Craft	STA	2.25	29,486	44,229
Curriculum Adviser- Music	STA	2.25	29,486	44,229
Curriculum Adviser-Physical Education/Health	STA	2	29,486	36,858
Practicum Adviser	STA	3	29,486	88,458
Curriculum Advisor- Technical/Vocational	STA	2	20,496	41,892
Curriculum Adviser- ICT (Computer) Education	STA	1.5	21,795	32,693
Financial Management Adviser	STA	1.5	21,795	32,693
Library Specialist	STA	1.5	19,162	41,892
Adult Education	STA	1	26,320	32,692
Information Technology Specialist	STA	1.5	21,795	32,692
Student Support Services	STA	1	21,795	10,898
Sustainability Adviser	STA	3	19,162	57,486
Curriculum Adviser	STA	.25		
Monitoring and Evaluation	MGT	2	3,023	151,125
TOTAL		92.75		1,177,092
TOTAL STA		39.75		

*Half week added to the first visit for each FESP adviser in 2004 to identify areas to improve coordination and familiarise LTC staff with developments.

**Unit rate is the average across all STA positions

(AusAID LTCUP Revised Project Design Document, 2004, Annex 7 p.1)

A detail of the TAs as shown in Appendix VIII, highlight the varied range of tasks and indicators and means of verification used which included:

- Annual and quarterly Progress reports to be submitted on time and to the agreed standard;
- LTC submits a corporate Plan and Annual Budget for the MOE for Year 2006;
- Develop and implement effective project procedures with regard to quality assurance, risk management, sustainability, gender equity, asset registration, financial management and accounting and supervision of locally-engaged support staff.

(AusAID Revised Project Design Document 2004, Annex 8, p. 2)

The PL of the LTCUP was responsible for providing effective and efficient management which included financial and human resource management. He also made technical knowledge and skills available to the LTC Principal and senior management which enabled them to improve the LTC's policy, planning, and management capacity

As highlighted earlier, the TL and all the TAs were Australians. This arrangement was similar to the FATEP as highlighted in chapter 5. Their inputs were spread over a number of visits and what the Australian consultants were personally paid - and associated perks - added up to a substantial proportion of the Project funding allocation (Table 11). Furthermore, their taxes were also repatriated to Australia. Further analysis of funding practice and processes is presented in chapter 8.

It is interesting to note, and somewhat surprising, that the cost schedules for two long-term personnel, the Project Leader and the Technical Director, were not disclosed in the Revised Project Design

Document. However, if their cost schedule was to be calculated on the minimal unit cost (AUD\$23,275) of their total input of forty five months, the sum total of their allocation would be AUD \$1,047,375. The Project Leader would have been paid AUD\$837,900 over a period of three years while the Technical Director would have been paid a quarter of that, AUD\$209,475, for nine months input. Based on this estimation, between them the two long-term advisers account for 20% or fifth of the total allocation of the AusAID project funding. The total technical assistance cost of the short and long-term advisers added up to one third of the LTCUP funding.

The sum total of consultation fees added up to more than A\$2.2 m. The amount, which excludes the consultants' hotel accommodation and travel costs, is more than fifty percent of the total funding of the Project. The issue of aid dollars repatriated to Australia is referred to by Baba (1987) as the "*buccaneering*" of Australian aid assistance.

Resources and Recurrent Costs

The AusAID combined allocation for FESP and LTCUP for the financial year 2004-2005 was A\$4.69 million, and A\$4.05 million for the 2005 calendar year. There were limitations which were anticipated and were taken into consideration when developing GOF costs for the implementation phase of the LTCUP (as shown in Table 9) as well what was then future FESP financial commitment. In addition, the GOA contribution to the project implementation, following the design phase, was approximately A\$4.3 million⁵⁹ inclusive of management fees.

⁵⁹ Refer to Annex 1 (cost and Resource Schedules) for full details of GOA budget allocation0

As part of the bilateral arrangement, the GOF contribution included recurrent costs, subsistence allowances for eligible participants in the LTCUP training activities, and “in kind” contributions through the provision of participants, counterparts, and venues for training. However, the proposed intervention had a significant recurrent cost implication for the GOF. This was minimised through maintenance and training provision in the purchasing agreements for the GOA funded equipment procurements, particularly IT equipment. The introduction of cost recovery mechanisms for internet users and the ability for the LTC to engage in income-generating activities had the potential to cover more than the recurrent costs, but although the infrastructure was in place the idea was never implemented. Negotiations are however still underway to implement this initiative.

One of the major risks to the Project sustainability was the high level of recurrent cost to the GOF. There were new additional recurrent costs generated by additional Project activities which included the teaching practicum to rural areas, the printing of manuals, paid consultants and programme advisers, subject reference group meetings, internet access, and the maintenance of purchased equipment. This equipment included vehicles, computer consumables, and enhanced electricity consumption. There were the additional ongoing salaries of additional library staff and the annual cost of increased participation of students in the ECE Certificate programme.

There were also other concerns about the anticipated recurrent cost of operating the IT equipment (see Table 10) which will to some extent depend on the robustness of the design and the ability of the

equipment to sustain and continue to work effectively in the climatic conditions⁶⁰ of Lautoka.

However the procurement of air-conditioning for computing environment was included to assist in prolonging the life of the IT equipment. It was also anticipated some maintenance will be required for this. Other recurrent costs for consumables such as power, toner, and electricity have been the estimated at current cost and usage rates (refer to table 7.2 below).

Conclusion

The LTCUP has been a diverse initiative. This chapter contextualises the initiatives taken during the various phases of the LTCUP, the high cost of services provided by offshore consultants whose value relied on the knowledge of local counterparts who could continue in the role provided by overseas TL and the TAs. In retrospect, there were some improvements noted when compared to the earlier Teacher Education initiative of the FATEP particularly in the engagement of the wider scope of stakeholder as reference group during the content design of the teacher education courses. The need to employ more local consultants can not be overemphasised. Their unique cultural and institutional knowledge needs to be acknowledged with equitable remuneration by aid donors. However the locals need to equip them with the compatible skills to engage in consultancy exercise. The next chapter will analyse the gaps between the AusAID rhetoric and aid delivery to the teacher training institutions of the research.

⁶⁰ Lautoka is located in the Western part of Fiji and it is relatively hot and humid which may not be conducive for IT equipment without an air conditioned laboratory.

Chapter 7

Analysis of Research

Yumi mas toktok wantaim na wokabaut wantaim. Tasol yu mi mas wok wantaim tu (Papua New Guinea Tok Pisin). We must talk together and walk together. But we must work together too (Sir Rabbie L. Namaliu, September 2009, p.18).

Partnership between foreign aid national business could help to stimulate development. There is, therefore, a strong case for foreign aid donors and recipients working together to identify and develop appropriate, practical strategies (Sir Rabbie L. Namaliu, 2009, p. 18).

Introduction

The previous chapter described the LTCUP case study. The Project is the principal focus of this research and this chapter discusses AusAID assistance provided for teacher education and development. This chapter unravels and analyses the different stages of the LTC upgrade during the Project implementation phase.

This chapter is divided into two parts with the first part analysing the profile of the field study and raising the respondents' experiences of the case studies using information collected in semi-structured interviews and *talanoa* sessions. The field data highlights some key issues regarding the effectiveness of aid delivery as defined in the Paris Declaration as translated in the Pacific Principles of Aid Effectiveness. The analysis also outlines how the conceptual framework (Figure 2) of this research could be applied to facilitate the implementation of the LTCUP case study of this research, and the background information of the FATEP and the BEMTUP initiatives as discussed in chapters 6 and 7. Also, in this chapter AusAID delivery mechanisms are studied in detail, with a focus on how effective its delivery process was during the implementation stage. This study's

approach is underpinned by an emphasis on the leverage of critical voices of all those engaged either directly or indirectly in the delivery mechanisms of the Project.

The second part of the chapter focuses on measuring the effectiveness of aid delivery. This section uses the four yardsticks (effectiveness, efficiency, sustainability and responsiveness) proposed in the conceptual framework.

Overall the chapter raised the following concerns:

“What things were done effectively?”

“What things were done less effectively?” and

“What things were done but did not bring about any change (neutral)?”

These guiding questions were framed in order to address the key research questions below:

- I. To what extent did the two previous AusAID programmes and management practices arise out of donor interests and recipient needs, succeed in their stated aims, and generate unintended consequences?*
- II. What critical indicators or yardsticks can be used to measure the effectiveness of educational aid delivery in teacher education in Fiji?*
- III. What conceptual framework for aid delivery processes can be implemented to promote and strengthen the effective delivery mechanisms in Fiji and Pacific Island Countries?*

The central question raised is whether or not delivery of the assistance worked effectively. According to O’Keeffe (2004) it is all very well to speak about procedures, but what matters is whether they are making a positive difference to development outcomes in the recipient context.

The Aid Projects and Policy Impact

At the macro level, there is evidence that the aid programmes under consideration for this study contributed in many ways to national development. It can be asserted with confidence that at a general level both aid programmes have been central to education development reform. They have contributed to significant gains in teacher development, and to the upgrade of the qualification from a certificate to a diploma. The projects have also assisted in the improvement of capital facilities to support the initiatives. Overall the major impact of the projects has been the contribution of physical infrastructure to the recipient institutions. Certain strengths and weaknesses were identified and discussed in chapters five (5) and six (6), and these will be revisited in the later part of this chapter.

Except for the FATEP and BEMTUP, the LTCUP and the FESP contributed more to Fiji’s strategic educational needs in conjunction with the Government of Fiji’s (GOF) target towards the MDGs, which is “to achieve universal primary education” (Ministry of Finance and National Planning, 2006, p.13). This is particularly relevant to the GOF’s perceived need to improve primary education standards due to the growing number of early drop-outs. Fiji has prioritised education because of the belief that a society of well educated people is able to contribute towards the development of a wealthy nation. Education is

also viewed as the single best development investment a country can make because it contributes to better health, higher incomes and increased participation in community life. One of the recommendations by Coxon, (2000) in the FIEC was;

‘to establish an Education Service Commission to determine standards for teacher performance, and to be responsible for the development of registration, appointment, transfer and promotion policies for teachers. These policies should recognise and uphold teacher professionalism, excellence, merit, service and equal opportunities’.

Coxon, 2000. pp.423

This priority is given an appropriate profile in the annual budget (Ministry of Finance and National Planning, 2006).

On national average there has been a slight improvement in the teacher: pupil ratio, from 1:30 in 2000 to 1:28 in 2006 (Ministry of Finance and National Planning, 2006; MOE, 2006). However, in urban schools the class rolls are very high and concerns have been raised about whether the quality of education has been compromised. Investment in the development of teacher training institutions has had a great impact on raising the quality and standards of teachers from certificate to diploma accreditation and thus, their ability to deliver quality education is anticipated.

As a consequence of these positive impacts on teacher education, traditional aid donors such as the EU and AusAID have continued to embark on aid programmes to assist the MOE in improving and upgrading rural schools and facilities. The aid donors have also been instrumental in strengthening the educational system in Fiji and improving the delivery and the quality of education, especially to children in disadvantaged, rural, and remote communities. The

FESP/ AusAID⁶¹ funding is a \$25million five year programme which commenced in June 2003 while the FESP/EU⁶² agreement was signed in September 2004 with a commitment of F\$45million (MOE, 2006).

Examining the impact and strengths and weaknesses of a project is an important step in both analysing and evaluating its effectiveness.

An Analysis of the Implementation of each Project

The purpose of the analysis is to assess the various levels of relevance and to highlight the differences between the two AusAID projects in reference to the Paris Declaration and the Pacific Principles of Aid Effectiveness. The analysis also aims to assess the aid delivery mechanisms and the contribution of the two projects to the development of education to complement the ongoing monitoring of down stream implementation following the withdrawal of funding.

It is also intended to provide a more comprehensive and qualitative understanding of how aid effectiveness may contribute to improved education development in Fiji and to inform future aid projects.

As a result of global consensus regarding aid effectiveness, there has been a concern to improve the quality of aid (Action Aid International, (2005). The global consensus placed a particular emphasis on the impact of aid in education. It was recognised that there are

⁶¹ To assist the MOE to implement strategic reforms thereby improving the delivery and quality of educational services in Fiji, especially for children in disadvantaged and remote communities.

⁶² The Programme aims to achieve equitable access, participation and achievement in lifelong education for disadvantaged communities in Fiji and to improve the country's education quality and outcomes.

numerous challenges in the field of development evaluation, and these are discussed in the latter part of this chapter.

This analysis comprises an evaluation concerned with how to improve future mechanisms of aid delivery. The attention is on the means of improving and enhancing implementation, rather than rendering a finite judgment about its effectiveness. Thus it focuses on drawing out key issues, lessons and points of concern for developing countries and policy makers. The analysis is particularly concerned with providing explanations for why and how progress in the implementation of aid delivery is being achieved with reference to the parameters of the Paris Declaration. This also applies to the Pacific Principles of Aid Effectiveness adopted by Pacific Forum countries.

In addressing this challenge I will rely on information collected using the *talanoa* approach. Two projects are compared in order to determine whether, over nearly twenty years that elapsed between their implementation, any improvements have been introduced. It was interesting to note that, in *talanoa* sessions, participants and respondents acknowledged that changes have occurred. However the respondents were also of the opinion that there is still room for improvement. The comments provided by all the stakeholders (donors and recipients sides) are discussed in detail in the later part of this chapter and should be taken to account in future undertakings in Fiji and other developing countries especially in the Pacific if the necessary comparative studies are carried out.

Respondents and informants

During data collection, crucial information was gathered from the respondents and stakeholders who played a pivotal role in expressing

their personal views concerning the implementation phase of the project/s. However a number of key concerns emerged. The table below (Table 13) illustrates the diversity of background and depth of knowledge of these stakeholders who had both the qualifications and the experience to speak with authority about what they had observed concerning the mechanisms used in the process.

As explained in the methodology chapter, data was collected from respondents (key stakeholders) via semi-structured interviews conducted in the form of *talanoa* sessions. In the process of the *talanoa* sessions, other means of triangulation were employed to assure the validity and reliability of the information gathering. What follows is a summary of the composition of the respondent sample (Table 13).

Table 13
Composition of Respondents

Respondent	Lautoka Teachers College (LTCUP)	Fiji College of Advanced Education (FATEP)
Lecturers	35	15
Students	25	15
Support Staff	10	5
Project Team Leader	1	n.a.
Consultants	5	n.a.
Consultants (short-term)	5	n.a.
Consultants (EU)	2	n.a.
Reference Group members	10	n.a.
Contractors	5	n.a.
MOE Officers	15	10
Parents	5	5
Community	15	10
MOF Officers	5	5
<i>n.a.: not available</i>		

Source: Adapted from Ruru 2007. Field data

In 2006 has been eighteen years since the implementation of the FCAE teacher education upgrade through the FATEP initiative. Consequently, information was less readily available from the respondents associated with that project than for the later LTCUP initiative in the early 2005. However, the secondary data from the FATEP project Design and Implementation documents, complemented by primary information from former staff and student-teachers, was sufficient to draw some broad conclusions. The experiences and lessons learnt from the latter project (Lautoka Teachers College Upgrade Project) was enough to make comparisons between the two aid projects.

The depth and combination of information sourced from various respondents proved to be rich and diverse enough make it possible to address the main research question of the thesis.

Donor – Recipient Collaboration and Partnership

At the international level, the OECD (2006) led the call to examine partnerships between donor and recipient countries, and pointed out that this relationship was crucial if necessary targets were to be refined and appropriate guidance drawn up to ensure their achievement. Partnership is also necessary for establishing a consistent aggregation of information so that more comprehensive understanding can be formulated on how increased aid effectiveness can contribute to meeting development aid project objectives. According to Overton and Storey (2004:42) the need for a shift in attitude and practices of donor agencies is to achieve practical outcomes. The Paris Declaration on Aid Effectiveness also affirmed the five core principles of aid effectiveness (see Table 12 with the

detail explained in Appendix V). The focus of the Paris Declaration is to increase the impacts of aid delivery to reduce poverty and inequality, to increase growth, to build capacity, and to accelerate achievement of MDGs (OECD, 2000)⁶³.

This analysis focuses more on the first three principles (ownership, alignment, and harmonisation) as these are the most directly appropriate and relevant to aid for education. There is also a brief overview of the two remaining principles - managing results, and mutual accountability.

Ownership

Unlocking development effectiveness is a multi-faceted endeavour (UNDP, 2000). It calls for action at both the institutional level and the implementation level; from the strengthening of a results-based culture within donor organisations, to promoting deeper partnerships with other institutions. According to the UNDP (2000), ownership of development programmes and projects by the national government is increasingly recognised as paramount to the success of an intervention. Evaluation findings have shown a strong correlation between the level of ownership and the performance of the project. Increased local support due to the buy-in and ownership of a project by the national government is one of the elements contributing to the improvement of project sustainability in terms of achieving immediate objectives (UNDP, 2000).

Consequently, country ownership is the first step in promoting effective participation by local stakeholders (UNDP 2000).

⁶³ www.oecd.org/dac/harmonisingpractices

Development effectiveness requires devolution of power and resources to the local level and reaching out to local stakeholders and beneficiaries. The importance of involving the private sector, as a local stakeholder, in the design and implementation of any programmes can not be overemphasised. Therefore, in any genuine spirit of ownership, the partnership commitment should be based on the lessons of experience. Commitments need to be interpreted through the unique situation of each partner country and the way in which they exercise effective leadership over their development policies and strategies, and the manner in which they co-ordinate development actions (OECD, 2006). There is also a need to develop and support their national development strategies⁶⁴ through broad consultative processes. In the same vein, the donor partner countries need to be committed to a conducive country leadership, which helps strengthen their capacity to foster effective aid ownership. According to Wendt (2003), ownership can be forged through a commitment designed to address both donor interests and recipient needs, to ensure increasing project capacity and sustainability. Greely (2007) argues that in the absence of a very strong sense of domestic ownership, aid intervention will suffer. The question is, do mutual agreements with donors automatically weaken local ownership and, therefore, local input?

It was obvious from the *talanoa* sessions that though there were some ownership elements in the LTCUP initiative, but the sustainability and the ownership rested on the GOF financial commitment and political will to support the initiative. With the

⁶⁴ The term “national development strategies” includes poverty reduction and similar overarching strategies as well as sector and thematic strategies (OECD, 2006).

current downturn of Fiji's economy and the global economic recession the sustainability of the project may not be forthcoming.

However in the most recent development, LTC has merged with other five state owned training institutions to be part of the Fiji National University (FNU)⁶⁵ with effect from January 2010. The development will allow for more flexibility and the sustainability of the College as it will be autonomous for innovations to generate more revenue for further expansion.

Fiji and aid partnership

The delivery process in the case study saw the Fiji government through a bilateral arrangement contribute some funds to some aspects of the projects. As discussed in chapters 5 and 6, the donor-recipient agreement detailed the contribution that would be made by the GOF to employ local staff. During the tenure of the two projects a vast disparity between salaries paid to overseas consultants and the local counterparts became known and local counterparts came to believe they were underpaid and overworked.

According to one of the respondents:

Some of the consultants from Western Australia were good, but there were some who were not too good. After their two or three months of "input" here, they lack the international experience and exposure as the consultants from Griffith and Sydney or Brisbane would have. They don't have the experience as they are pulled out of the classroom - like the lady who was to design the "multi-class" teaching programme. She was

⁶⁵ FNU is the merge of the 6 state owned training institutions, Fiji College of Agriculture, Fiji Institute of Technology, Fiji School of Medicine, Fiji School of Nursing, Fiji College of Advanced Education and the Lautoka Teacher College to be part of the Government University.

a very successful teacher in Western Australia but to come here, work with professionals, design a course outline, is a different kettle of fish altogether. It is not practical because you require special skills to design courses. Secondly, they have not been out of Western Australia before. You can literally see in the first week they try to learn what to do because they have not done this kind of work before. Although the TOR says that you have to design a course in multi-class teaching which expects you know the template and to be able to read, to put the objectives the outcomes, the content. You may be a good teacher, but to do this requires special skills and knowledge. As a result, we have no other option but to terminate their contract so we have to get a replacement which requires time and a new contract to be drawn up. There has been a waste to funds for the initial “incompetent” consultants which could have been used for other things. This contributed to the delay in some of the LTCUP phases of the project. ACIL should have identified competent consultants, so rigorous recruitment of “consultants” should have been carried out to identify them to save time and funds.

(Semi-structured interview (*Talanoa*), 6th March, 2007, Lautoka Teachers College)

The same experience was alluded to by another lecturer who worked with the FATEP consultants. She noted that:

The biggest drawback of some of the consultants was that they had limited knowledge because for some of them it was their first experience of consultancy in Fiji. Due to their minimal knowledge of basic information about Fiji, there were a lot of assumptions because of how little they know about the Fiji education system and context. Some consultants were prepared to learn while others tried to impose knowledge. It's important that local and overseas counterparts mutually work together.

(Semi-structured interview (*Talanoa*) 19th June, 2007, Fiji College of Advanced Education)

The perceptions of the overseas consultants raised a lot of concern by locals. They were particularly concerned about the shallowness of their local knowledge and their insensitivity to local culture. There was a pressing need for careful induction for the expatriates to understand and be sensitive about the way they behaved (Williams, 2005). However the value of the locals' contribution can not be ignored. This was endorsed by one of the overseas consultants who said:

In other project I was involved with in the Pacific, we sent a hit team in for ten days before we actually started, before the consultants came in, and we looked at the resources, we looked at everything and came up with a very clear description (that's not arrogant) a clear description of what was there, how things were hanging together, where the essential strengths were, where the essential weaknesses were. We may have been a little naive because we were outsiders, but we used local people all the time. That meant when the two consultants came to conduct the training on the ground, they had a basis upon which to build the various consultants who were working in isolation.

(Semi-structured interview (*Talanoa*), 6th March, 2007, Lautoka Teachers College)

Some consultants who were engaged in the later stage of the project acknowledged that they did not have much knowledge but relied heavily on the local staff for direction. In the *talanoa* session one of the consultants said:

I came in the later stage when the project was totally under ACIL as managing contractor; however there has been a change in the structure of the project and its local management over the last couple of years. Originally the Project Managers were based in LTC, and recently last year, Fiji Education Sector Program (FESP) as a separate project then incorporated LTCUP as local management has caused some concern for me as we don't have an on-the-ground advisor that we can talk to and seek advice from which is more difficult

than the current set up. Although the people from Suva come regularly, there are some repercussions out of that raise my concern (sic) particularly in relation to the way the original contract was set up. While we were still operating under the terms and conditions as consultants, there is variations of those conditions we work under and recently there are consultant coming from Western Australia Department of Education in linkage with ACIL. That has caused some disquiet among people because we are actually working under different rules. This may or may not be the case; I am not sure.

(Semi-structured interview (*Talanoa*), 9th February, 2007, Lautoka Teachers College)

Another consultant raised similar sentiments; that there were unclear “terms of reference” in his input description as a consultant for the project, and he had to rely on the information of the local counterparts. He added that:

The job descriptions I get were not very clear in terms of outlining the job outcomes. There are other issues prescribed to me before coming on board. I don't think the focus applied to the job descriptions. In reality the work is different from the TOR prescribed of the position - I have to be flexible and operational. There are some inconsistencies in the prescribed duties and the actual duties. When I come to LTC for my input, I still do other work with LTC in the curriculum development. However the overlap of the activity on the ground means that the prescriptions are very clear and direct in relations to the TOR on the ground but sometimes they don't complement.

(Semi-structured interview (*Talanoa*), 9th February, 2007, Lautoka Teachers College)

The consultant's response indicated that local counterparts assisted the consultants with issues they were not sure of as they are the owners of knowledge and they possessed crucial institutional

information which the overseas consultants needed to acknowledge and act on if their input was to be effective (Ravuvu, 1983). Some overseas consultants were dependent on learning and taking their cue from utilising a wide range of local information sources. In contrast to this, the locals were well grounded, to contextual information, and were experts in their own fields. However there is always room for overseas technical assistance to compliment the homegrown knowledge to raise the quality of the initiative.

To ensure better aid arrangements and partnerships, there is a need for clear and proper consultation with the appropriate stakeholders who are already, and will continue to be, directly involved in project implementation. One of the respondents emphasised the importance of the negotiation with the MOU and said:

When the MOU is not clear with the stipulated with agreements, then the various stakeholders do not have the obligation to carry out what is required. The only thing that was very clear was that the MOE would release officials to attend meetings. There should be a commitment to be borne by the host government (MOE) for the recurrent cost of the project. There should be additional staffing provision for new positions that are created in the projects (Library, IT technician, un-established staff). The agreements have to be very clear.

(Semi-structured interview (*Talanoa*), 6th March, 2007, Lautoka Teachers College)

It is there crucial that the MOU is well outlined to avoid ambiguity among the stakeholders' role for the implementation and the success of any funded initiative. As Sanga (2003:45) clearly pointed out:

“We as stakeholders need to assume responsibility for leading the search for sustainable aid partnerships if

the rubble of the impact of past donor-recipient relationships is to be uncovered and positively built on again”.

In the LTCUP project mid-term review exercise, it was obvious that AusAID used the Technical Advisory Group (TAG) which was comprised predominantly of overseas consultants. There were only two locals, one of whom was an employee of AusAID in the Suva office. The review exercise lacked independence and impartial voice, because the TAG group had to abide by the TOR prescribed by AusAID. One of the concerns I raised as a researcher was the independence of the TAG review team who were employed by AusAID to carry out review of an AusAID funded project. The exercise raises a lot of question of impartiality.

Project Consultation and Negotiation

In the course of the project planning, negotiation, and the implementation phase, some crucial issues were raised which had some pertinent bearing on the project cycle. These were reflected in the roles and procedures observed by those involved in the negotiation stage of the projects. In the LTCUP planning and negotiation phase, the GOF through the MOE did not engagement and involve any of the College staff. Not even the LTC principal as the head of the institution was consulted. According to one of the senior staff at LTC:

The Principal of LTC was not consulted in the negotiation of the LTCUP nor the TOR. It would have made a difference because we could have known the different positions stakeholders hold and make suggestions. There was a need to clarify the MOU for true partnership and commitment from the initial stage on the agreement of the project and this has to be

translated. The different contribution from different stakeholders, should be binding. We need to have some local input in the project because they understand the local need and the local context. The Project has to be monitored on the ground but not by “remote control” as of the current practice for the LTCUP of such a magnitude. We have to sit and talk to them if they are to understand our problems and needs.

(Semi-structured interview (*Talanoa*), 6th March, 2007, Lautoka Teachers College)

During the LTCUP, the aid donors assumed that as the primary stakeholder, the MOE would have consulted the staff and student teachers prior to project implementation. Unfortunately this was not the case. During the negotiation process, MOE headquarters staff did not consult the LTC community for their input. The oversight to involve the relevant stakeholders had some crucial bearings on some sensitive cultural values which are significant to Fijians. As a consequence they were ignored in the consultation process but was realised in the implementation stage which was too late to be addressed.

A practical example of this concerns the building of the library block (Figure 7) on a cultural area which was previously reserved as a special *rara* space. During the negotiation phase, the MOE representative agreed on the site to be used for the library block without consulting with the LTC community for comments and endorsement. When the builders began putting in the survey pegs for the building profile, the LTC community objected vigorously. However since the site had been endorsed by the MOE representative on behalf of the LTC and this understanding was agreed into the MOU; a contractual arrangement had been forged and any suggested alteration such as finding another site had become impossible.

Although the LTC staff and students continued to object to the building of the library building block on the reserved space, the aid donors were adamant that they should proceed with the construction because it was already in the “terms of reference” of the donor–recipient contract through the MOU. The donor’s objection was that the LTC community’s request for relocation would result in further delays and cost variations would also be involved. The donors also used the complexity of the EU capital funding as a reason to ignore any deviation, claiming that the approval of the EU countries was too complicated to renegotiate. The variation would necessitate a new round of negotiations and approval might have been delayed until the next aid negotiation with the EDF⁶⁶ in five year’s time. The library was a critical part of the upgrade and needed to be completed to enable progress to be made in subsequent project phases. There was no time left for negotiation, the need for the library had become urgent and the cultural “aid-recipient need” of the institution was sacrificed in order to satisfy the economic reasoning of “aid-donor interest”. Unfortunately the GOF was not prepared to sacrifice to delay the project and to support the LTC community’s request.

The differences that arose between donor interests and recipient needs resulted from a weakness and a gross failure in the execution of the consultation mechanism. The undesired circumstances could have been avoided if procedural steps had been thoroughly executed. As one of the respondents pointed out, the location of the library building project would not have raised any concern if the consultation mechanism had been executed and a culturally appropriate site selected:

⁶⁶ EDF 10 is the European Union 5 year Economic Development Fund which they release for development assistance to developing countries.

The EU capital project was further delayed because of the objection for the proposed relocation of the library. This has resulted in the delay of the computer set-up because the old library was to house the new computer lab and this further delayed the computer lab set-up.

(Semi-structured interview (*Talanoa*), 6th March, 2007, Lautoka Teachers College)

In spite of the intent of the LTC community to propose some changes, the building contractor continued to be arrogant, inflexible, and unhelpful, not allowing any leeway or any variation. One of the respondents referred to the attitude of the operations manager of the contracting company in the following way;

The buildings are excellent “state of the art” in terms of what they have provided. But there are lessons to learn. The facilities are excellent but the contractor was not flexible to allow for some variations in the structure. The variations would be compatible to sustain the project as it will be very economical to sustain the recurrent cost in terms of the numbers of fans per rooms and the lightings in the new hostel block.

The new hostel does not have a laundry space but it was all located next to the dining hall which is not culturally practical and convenient for the girls especially at night. The MOE officials were expected to check and verify the practicality of the plan, but instead relied on the principal of LTC who is not well-versed or with the expertise in reading plans - but now I have acquired some skill, should there be another project, I am in a better position to raise a lot of suggestions for the practicality of the building structure.

(Semi-structured interview (*Talanoa*), 6th March, 2007, Lautoka Teachers College)

The lack of input from, or consultation with, local counterparts is also seen clearly in the capital project of the FATEP. In this project there was similarly no input or consultation with the Principal, staff, and students of the FCAE. According to Kapijimpanga (2004), this is a typical example of development initiatives, which, when run by people working from the top down approach, have failed over and over again. One of the former staff members of the FCAE noted:

With the FATEP there were no inputs from the Principal and staff of FCAE in the building infrastructure; it was more of the upgrade of the science lab where the apparatus and equipment were provided, the IT lab, and the PEMAC department (I think), the music lab. Major improvement was the carried out in the library; the systems in that area were similar. They developed the library system; they resourced the library, and resourced the science lab for the upgrade of both projects”.

(Semi-structured interview (*Talanoa*), 28th March, 2007, Lautoka Teachers College)

Further, regarding the issue of participation there is a lot to be learnt from the project. One of the biggest questions raised was whether there were checks and balances. One of the staff members observed:

I would want my voice - like all those in the leadership group - to be more prominent in the decision making from the start, and not only to have some “leader’s group meeting” put together, and gather information from all my staff members. I would have a Participatory/democratic process of decision making, whereby I am listening and including all the staff members so that we feel we are part of this together, instead of things being shoved down our throats as we go along. And in the end we are disappointed there are no funds to voice our disappointment; and there are a lot of loop-holes and we cover up and say that this is a democratic process of bringing about an aid program.

There are a lot of good ideas among ordinary people (*people like me now*) but our voices...you know....have not been really well articulated and there is no forum for recognition. I believe that there are competent local consultants who can contribute equally or even better. The importance to build good aid relationship and teamwork should be done through empowering all the staff not only the HOS.

(Semi-structured interview (*Talanoa*), 28th March, 2007, Lautoka Teachers College)

Another lecturer from the FCAE shared the same sentiment in saying that the during the FATEP initiative:

There was lack of involvement of key stakeholders in the project design for their voices to make a difference in the implementation and the sustainability of the project.

(Semi-structured interview (*Talanoa*), 19th June, 2007, Fiji College of Advanced Education)

If the donor stakeholders had exercised some flexibility during the course of project implementation, it would have promoted greater mutual understanding and a true spirit of genuine partnership would have been forged. If such a partnership had been forged the biggest winner in this process would have been the recipients because they would have taken full responsibility for the ownership of the project, and this would have assured project sustainability. As Naidu (2005) has argued, international donors need to support and promote a sense of national identity rather than working against it by supporting inherited systems and forcing these upon recipients. The National government on the other hand need to sensitive to the contextual and cultural expectation of the local community.

Resource procurement

Unlike the earlier FATEP and the BEMTUP initiatives in the 1990s, the LTCUP initiated after 2000 showed some improvements in the procurement of resources. A compelling criticism by some commentators such as Puamau (2002), and Nabobo (2000), related to the procurement of the FATEP books and resources, which were purchased offshore. In situations where books were not available locally, then it is appropriate to order them from Australia as they are required. However there was a shift in the procedures of LTCUP procurement process during the Project in which the purchase of computers and software resource was made locally. The IT consultant noted that:

The Dell computers are purchased locally at the local price. We could purchase them from Australia or Japan cheaper by 25% which is a substantial saving but we would not have the local support and back-up service. We made the decision that that was much more important than just trying to get the cheapest price because part of the sustainability issue of the college to face is not just to get stuff supplied, but to keep it going and having people you can call on to be able to do that. Buying equipment from one supplier has built up our relationships with them as individuals, those involved in the LTCUP, and as a college. Now we are in a very good position of ensuring that we have some sort of local back-up and support. The other thing was that this company has provided us with a three year warranty which was built in. At least we know that for 3 years that we will be supported with all this equipment.

(Semi-structured interview (*Talanoa*), 16th February, 2007, Lautoka Teachers College)

The procurement shift was encouraging. It promoted the local IT industry and boosted the local companies, and thus contributed to the national economy.

However the College principal of (LTC) had to justify further purchases before more money could be spent on new IT equipment. There was enormous pressure to replace old and maintain the new IT equipment purchased by the project. One suggestion was to introduce fees and “user-pays” access to the internet for students and staff. There was an urgent need to reduce operational costs for printing due to *laissez-faire* practices followed in the past and the lack of accountability. One possible plan for generating funding was the possibility that the LTC’s new “state of the art” equipment provided the opportunity to run courses for community groups. Another proposal involved the possibility of running in-service courses for teachers after hours, over weekends and in the holidays. The idea was that a fee would be charged for these in-service courses. It was proposed that part of the fee would be used as an incentive or “encouragement fee” for staff involved because they would be employed outside of normal working hours.

Although the principle behind the user-pay concept is feasible, it requires some policy endorsement from government because the LTC was and remains a non-profit government institution. Autonomous operation and privileges for the College would require parliamentary approval. The approval for autonomy would allow the College to collect some revenue to sustain its recurrent operation costs. However many of these plans for revenue generation were never realised.

In addition to the positive changes in terms of the procurement of IT and software, the procurement of building and construction materials for the capital infrastructure was also carried out locally. However, while this did provide some financial boost to the local economy, the

contracting company was a subsidiary of an overseas-based company, meaning that funds were still being channeled offshore.

Project Alignment

According to the OECD & World Bank (2005, p. 3) the baseline of donors is to support country strategies as asserted in the Paris Declaration. (Wood, et. al, (2008) further emphasised that donors also have a responsibility to base policy dialogue and development programmes on their partners' national development strategies and to carry out periodic reviews while implementing the strategies (indicator 3 of Appendix III). The mutual relationship is equally important where the two parties develop complementary initiatives.

According to Wolf, (2007), recipient governments' priorities should be aligned to their government's strategic development plans. However, aid donors have their own strategic areas as well. Generally this is similar around the world, where everyone wants to assist in areas of basic health, education, infrastructure, human rights development, gender issues, law and order, and good governance (Hunt and Morton, 2004). This was closely echoed in the words of one of the aid unit respondents when commenting on how different donors participate in the negotiation processes:

Different donors have different ways. The government negotiates in a manner aligned through the government strategic development plans, where they outline all government priorities under the different areas. Of course aid donors have their own strategic areas which are basically the same around the world where everyone wants to assist in the area of basic health, education, infrastructure, human rights development, gender issues, law and order, and good governance. Concerned parties sit down and negotiate.

(Semi-structured interview (*Talanoa*), 11th May, 2007,
Ministry of Finance Aid Unit)

In some situations, aid donors insist on promoting their own agenda and interests. Where donors move away from imposing their priorities the most challenging issue becomes the need to negotiate a shared agreement. There have been occasions in the past when the GOF has taken the bold step of refusing assistance when offered aid which did not comply with its strategic development plans and interests. One of the officers at the aid unit pointed out:

Fiji is not totally dependent on aid and we have turned down some when they are irrelevant to our strategic development plans.

(Semi-structured interview (*Talanoa*), 11th May, 2007,
Ministry of Finance Aid Unit)

Some radical attitudes taken by Fiji and other developing countries have sent clear signals to aid donors to respect and comply with the recipients' development needs. Aid donors as aid providers need to abstain from imposing their own interests and wishes to make political and international mileage through inappropriate power relations where donors often set the agenda for the aid initiatives. As noted by one of the aid officers:

“With NZAID and AusAID, they take it up to high level bilateral consultation at ministerial level. With the EU you do consultation and you sign under a financing agreement and that binds the commitment under the agreement.

(Semi-structured interview (*Talanoa*), 11th May, 2007,
Ministry of Finance Aid Unit)

In setting the power relation perimeter in place, it enhances donor/recipient partnership and promotes the selection

which need to support and how to offer such help. There were some instances during the LTCUP that some of the donor's interests were imposed as discussed in Chapter 8.

It was apparent that the LTCUP was in line with the "National Strategies" which appeared as recommendations in the Report of the Fiji Education Commission (2000), which declared:

Teachers have a pre-eminent role in providing quality education and what takes place in the classroom is fundamentally important. Curriculum is only as good as the teachers who deliver it. It is apparent that pre-service training needs to be emphasised in areas such as effective strategies in multi-grade classes. Teachers need continuing professional development as knowledge is constantly changing and teachers need to be updated with current and appropriate learning. Professional development keeps teachers in touch with new developments and approaches and also serves as an incentive to encourage teachers to remain in the profession.

(Tavola, 2000, p. 472)

It was though the recommendations of FIEC report that the MOE proposed the LTC upgrade:

the upgrading of the teacher pre-service training programme to Diploma level with infrastructural support at Lautoka Teachers College are initiatives that will contribute to a qualified and competent teaching force in primary school.

(Ministry of Education Strategic Plan 2006- 2008, (2005), p. 10)

In addition the following LTC related recommendations in the FIEC report were raised that:

- A coherent and careful sequenced plan for LTC upgrading be developed on the basis of a two year

diploma programme, which can be staircased into Bed (primary);

- The utilisation of external assistance be investigated in terms of most cost effective and timely means of upgrading LTC and strengthening the academic programmes, and that these be weighed against the possible funding requirements for in-service developments, such as the extension of BEMTUP; and,
- In-service centres be established in each of the four education divisions and at FCAE and LTC.

Coxon, 2000. p.423

These recommendations have been take on board and implemented, however one of the concerns is the establishment of LTC and FCAE as in-service centres. This may beyond the direct control of the MOE as the two institutions have merged under the umbrella of the Fiji National University

To promote partnerships between donors and recipient governments, there is a need to commit to a genuine, mutual partnership approach with more secure practical funding across the board. Ultimately, putting the right model in place is more important than the level of funding. A large amount of aid may be given, but when it is not well directed towards a concrete purpose, its effectiveness is diminished, thus, the importance of having a sound model for the measurement of aid effectiveness and delivery becomes apparent.

Manor (2007a) emphasises the use of consultative and participatory mechanisms associated with community-driven development. It is through ownership that the difficult transition from initial quick-impact and top-down programmes to bottom-up efforts to promote development and institutional reform will be made. The bottom-up approach will then move from addressing dire emergencies to longer term support and development. Such bottom-up mechanisms can enhance government officials' and local communities' sense of programme ownership. These mechanisms not only improve infrastructure projects but also change the way in which both officials and citizens think about governance, state-society relations, and development.

Harmonisation

In response to a growing trend towards harmonisation and alignment, there is a greater need for mutual engagement in the approach to aid negotiation. According to Ward, Sikua, and Banks, (2004) harmonisation in the form of policy coherence, should be implemented among the various sectors of a donor government that contribute to international aid. This involves donor countries working together to produce common strategies, processes, and practices with the aim of making them central elements of development policy and development. This commitment calls for the harmonisation of monitoring and reporting requirements through alignment to the recipient country's statistical monitoring and evaluation systems. It also acknowledges the need for capacity building in many developing countries in order to strengthen these systems.

The OECD (2005) has mobilised donors to start using simplified procedures and practices, conducting joint analytical work, and

enacting an enhanced focus on delivery of development results. It has delegated cooperation, common procurement, and financial management procedures, and common arrangements for a sector wide approach (SWAP) and budget support. As it is pointed out in OECD documentation:

On alignment as of October 2004, 43 countries had prepared the poverty reduction strategies (PRT), and many other low and middle income countries had nationally owned development strategies. Information from the survey of the 14 countries of the DAC Working Party on Aid Effectiveness and other suggests that there is a promising trend towards donor alignment behind the country strategies. There is a small but growing list of examples of joint strategies among donors in support of these strategies. More donors are using programmatic, or budget, financing to provide overall support for country strategies and programmes at the national and sectoral levels.

(OECD, 2005, p. 13)

The OECD (2005) has been the forerunner in the global move for strengthening harmonisation and alignment by all stakeholders engaged in development aid. Consistent with this, in the Fiji case studies under consideration here, particularly the LTCUP, the project tried to action some of the harmonisation principles put forward by the EU and AusAID. However, overall the LTCUP failed to adhere to the principles of harmonisation guidelines let alone achieve the alignments.

A notable example of the LTCUP lack of harmonisation and alignment was encountered when some of the buildings were not completed on time to keep to the logical framework schedule, and this delayed installation of the computers in the IT laboratory. The delay further slowed the building of the library block which in turn resulted in the project running over time. As a consequence, the project had no

choice but to defer the diploma course a year beyond the starting date proposed by the Ministry of Education. One of the respondents expressed some disappointment in the delay by saying:

The delay in building of the library block stalled other critical parts of the project, particularly the IT where the old library was to be converted into an IT laboratory. The delay was very frustrating because we expected contractors to build the capital infrastructure on schedule for the diploma programme to commence. Now the programme has been delayed by one year. Some students were excited to be part of the programme upgrade but they have missed it.

(Semi-structured interview (*Talanoa*), 6th March, 2007, Lautoka Teachers College)

There was lack of proper job scheduling which contributed in the delay in completing buildings and harmonising work between the aid donors. The delay resulted in the frustration among those who were to benefit from the project. A lot of lessons have been learnt about the importance of harmonisation among aid donors and the importance of prompt delivery on promises. Ward, Sikua, and Banks (2004) assert that if things run to schedule, people are pleased and the achievement raises their esteem.

Coordination and Implementation: Logical Framework

The central tenet of aid effectiveness literature is that the coherence of support will be undermined if donors do not exercise some degree of coordination (Greeley, 1999:42). Coordination begins with shared understanding of initial conditions and causes, which leads to identification of sequencing priorities, designs of activities, and implementation. It also underlines the importance of maintaining dialogue with government and flexibility while remaining focus on the

aid objective which is generally focused directly or indirectly to poverty reduction.

According to CIDA (2006), the logical framework is a key management tool used essentially at project level to guide aid donors and aid recipients to fully conceptualise the anticipated results of a project. It raises underlying assumptions and risks and how progress towards results can be measured. Managing any project to meet deadlines is very important. As illustrated by the above example, any delay incurred can reverberate through an enterprise and even result in some form of economic and/or social loss. If all stakeholders work in harmony in the systematic scheduling of project implementation, losses can be avoided (Norgaard, 1994). A logical framework can help to achieve this. Although the project's logical framework may look good on paper, it is not uncommon for some unforeseen circumstances and external factors to cause delay. Therefore, successful engagement depends on the proactive identification of issues as they arise and the cooperation of all parties can minimise unnecessary delays (Greeley, 2007).

The roles played by the people engaged in project implementation are crucial. They need to be willing and capable of managing any effective aid delivery system (Robinson, Hewitt, and Harriss, 2000). They have to be flexible and in the absence of ideological blinkers can become tuned into the pragmatic reality within which genuine change can take place (Brewer, 1995). Their personalities should be well grounded, committed to action, and committed to getting results as well as able to meet deadlines (Dam, 2006). Unfortunately personnel communication issues arose in the LTCUP project, and these interfered with overall performance. As one of the senior local partners reported:

The funding and budget was totally handled by the team leader TL. We ordered lot of books for the library but they have not arrived. We have discarded the old books from the old library; the shelves in the new library are quite empty. When the team leader left, there was no continuity. When the TL left no one knew what was in the file. All the files were transferred to FESP in Suva. The people there did not know what to do with it. For six months basically nothing really happened, and that's how we missed out on the funding. So when we don't use the funding it is returned and not carried forward.

(Semi-structured interview (*Talanoa*), 6th March, 2007, Lautoka Teachers College)

Poor communication between personnel during project implementation resulted in a lot of concerns and delays in meeting proposed deadlines. However, if the officers had allowed for some flexibility for variations in the logical framework, the project could have been user friendly, efficiently run in the absence of funding difficulties, economic, and completed within the anticipated timeframe.

When the LTC management raised the issue of economic sustainability, the contractor remained adamantly rigid. When the LTC Principal asked for the provision for four light bulbs in each cubical of the hostel accommodation to be reduced to two because it would be less costly to maintain and still provide ample light, the contractor refused outright. Today the institution still has to bear the unnecessary cost of other extravagant provisions that push up power bills. According to one of the consultants, there are:

...more electricity outlets, a lot of air-conditioners are being installed, a high demand for electricity and lighting, computer use that is not necessary. The new demands for those sorts of utilities do not have a budget to support them. The sustainability of those sorts of things is in question unless the MOE provides money to sustain those sorts of issues.

(Semi-structured interview (*Talanoa*), 7th March, 2007, Lautoka Teachers College)

Unless the Principal and the staff of LTC can find ways of generating additional revenue the likelihood of meeting the recurrent costs of electricity bills and building maintenance is very low. While it should have been part of the LTC project, there was no provision for a maintenance budget and the LTC was not empowered to use their capital to meet recurrent and maintenance costs. This may not be a concern now because the infrastructure is new, but it will increasingly become an issue as the years go by. Failure to provide a maintenance budget will result in a considerable loss in the long-term viability of the project.

Aid Bureaucracy/Ministerial Coordination

During the project, some bureaucratic hurdles were encountered which hindered the decision-making process between important players in the implementation phase. One of the important players was the MOF. Although it was not directly involved in the project, it played a pivotal role in the approval of the budget and meeting recurrent costs that could ensure financial sustainability. There could be no variations without MOF approval. One MOF representative had to be physically present to approve any variation. There were some special cases in which variations required that changes be made to the TOR. Owing to their heavy commitment to other issues it would

take a few days for the MOF officers to arrive at the project site. Delays resulted in further hold-ups. There was a call for better coordination through an integrated approach as noted by a consultant:

The integration of the government departments or the donors brings all the stakeholders together. It is about taking an integrated approach. Like in the LTCUP a key player in all we do is the MOF. In the public service, there are rules and regulations which impact on how the project can be managed. Although the MOF plays a pivotal role in key decision, it is not part of the project. With the current LTCUP structure it is not the case. The MOE and the project have to raise all the issues to the Public Service through the MOF. MOF is not really interested because they do not know anything about the project but they need to be aware of all the aid developmental stages.

With EU capital projects any variation to the main contract between the Fiji Government and the EU has to be approved by the MOF. It plays a critical role yet it was not a part of the project.

In the Sector Wide Approach (SWAp) all the parties are integrated and the barriers are lessened for the major players to participate. The SWAp not only integrates the arms of the government, but the NGOs and other donors are integrated too. With LTCUP we have AusAID, EU, JICA as well as KOICA. They are not integrated in any formal sense.

(Semi-structured interview (*Talanoa*), 15th May, 2007, Fiji College of Advanced Education)

During the implementation phase of the project there was a need for some flexibility to reschedule the sequencing of some activities. The different stakeholders needed to forge a consensus concerning some variations rather than implementing piecemeal variations which were time-consuming and resulted in a lot of unnecessary project delays.

Partnership through Collaboration

Donor agencies need to forge true partnerships with recipient governments through an objective partnership approach and collaboration where the locals in the recipient relationships are made to feel that they are equally valued in the aid project (Nabobo, 2003). According to Sanga (2003), aid donors in the PICs have their own way of relating with local authorities. For developing countries like Fiji, an emphasis in foreign aid is focused to a partnership-based model that would guarantee more secure funding programmes where recipient countries need to address their internal political affairs through good governance. According to UNDP (2000), some donors still maintain old-style relationships with developing countries and impose policies rather than conduct an open dialogue. However, a collaborative effort among all stakeholders is critical in any project implementation because it takes time. When consultants are engaged in a project, they are usually expected to hold to a very tight and rigid timetable and to meet milestones and deadlines. Usually the consultants' schedule takes precedence over the recipients' timeline which may not complement the local counterpart's way of working or his/her range of duties. Nabobo (2003) believe that the relationship is to do with the question of respect and collegiality.

During the LTCUP, the LTC staff members were under extreme pressure whilst working along side overseas consultants. Effectively, local staff had two jobs running side by side. They had to teach the teacher education programme as well as advice and mentor consultants. Consultants were simultaneously pushing their subject course reviews for the new diploma programme, and, because of the limited time they placed more pressure on their staff to meet their

deadlines. One of the lecturers at the LTC recalled her experience of that time as being characterised by sheer frustration:

When consultants came in I find that I was not able to produce quality work at that time because I was more worried about implementing and delivering the courses that were newly designed. Maybe the timing of the consultant when they come in is very important when we are more free and we have time to carry out extra responsibilities they want us to do. I feel that the timing of their coming is very important because the courses are new and we are learning new pedagogies, new strategies, and the consultants demand for extra work to be done promptly. Therefore the timing has to be looked at very closely. Secondly the expectation we have to acquire from the IT skills in terms of producing the reader which requires a lot of skill we need training on. Relevant skill should be taught so that these skills can enhance the production skills of the readers. There was a need to align the timing of course design and implementation with the compilation of the reader. The work demand for producing the reader text and course design was too demanding to be carried out simultaneously and with special skills to acquire.

(Semi-structured interview (*Talanoa*), 28th March, 2007, Fiji College of Advanced Education)

In such circumstances, it would have been more effective if both local and overseas counterparts had allowed for some flexibility in a very strenuous work environment. By forging a positive attitude, this would have created a more conducive work environment. As a result, more constructive work could have been achieved, it would have been better quality assured, and there would be fewer project delays. One of the consultants highlighted the importance of a cordial work relationship, saying:

Things that have been so difficult to make happen here now have been supported by the MOE. That change is so nice to happen. And I suspect that that change in the centre in relation to LTC is happening in relation to

all sorts of things. I think it is a nice lesson in all of these.

When this project was scoped by the donor agencies, I believe that it is very important that we look very, very carefully at the centre of the administration of the recipient government or department where the aid is going and see whether there is capacity there to manage the project as it goes ahead. If that capacity or the willingness to support is not there then we have great difficulty out there in the field. If you have interesting capacity in the central office then it makes the work out in the field easier and it makes it sustainability easily. And that is the lesson we are learning.

Like in the Philippines case (Project), the first year was about building capacity in the central office. And there is a proviso in the contract that says that if that capacity building does not exist then there will be no further aid. Now what is happening in that project there are 4 expatriate advisors and about 146 locals are employed and actually managing and delivering the project. It certainly could happen if the focus is put on giving people the capacity.

(Semi-structured interview (*Talanoa*), 15th May, 2007, Fiji College of Advanced Education)

To address the issues of better engagement, bureaucrats have to undergo special training to fully understand the importance of their role. They can only improve if they are trained to make a difference. According to Sanga and Walker (2005), these challenges require dedication, determination, and diligence on the part of the decision maker. If change is to happen, then leaders at the supervisory level need to be trained and made well aware of the organisation's vision and objectives. One of the consultants raised the same sentiment and noted:

If we are going to do these types of developmental projects, a fundamental principle can not be realised unless there is capacity in the centre, to manage and to

sustain it. If not, then it is going to be quite difficult to have it successful. My recommendation is if you start it at the top first, make sure people know what they are doing and what they are expected to do.

(Semi-structured interview (*Talanoa*), 15th May, 2007, Fiji College of Advanced Education)

The comment endorses the importance of the leadership capacity required of people in positions of authority within the institution. Special leadership qualities need to be recognised, and those with these qualities recruited as agents of change. In the LTCUP, if there is a weak link between the College and the MOE when it comes to some pertinent funding issues for institutional sustainability, decisive leadership is required immediately and the matter cannot be left to slide. If the MOE prioritises teacher education as important, then proper financial support should be made available and failure to do must quickly be taken up as a matter of urgency. Coxon (2000: 422) also believe the ‘quality of teachers need to be recognised where a standard is used a benchmark for the teachers to be sensitive and responsive to the cultural context, and committed to the development of a socially cohesive Fiji society’.

Managing Results

The emphasis on results is relatively new to monitoring practice which has until now focused on activities rather than on results and impacts (OECD, 2005). As a consequence aid managers have begun to demand that more attention be paid to result-based approaches. Donors need to offer coordinated support for capacity building; to harmonise approaches to result management; and to develop a result-focused corporate culture rewarded by appropriate incentives, as well as a uniform corporate reporting system. This could be

introduced as part of working towards MDGs, under which increased global attention has been increasingly focused on performance and the enhanced achievement of outputs, outcomes, and impacts (OECD, 2005). The resulting agenda has generated a broader focus and built a matrix against which the effectiveness of aid delivery can be measured.

“Result” configured management philosophy and practice systematically focuses on ways to optimise the value and prudent use of human and financial resources. It is also the basis for all aid initiatives and project planning, monitoring, and reporting. With reference to the LTCUP it can be reported that rigorous monitoring and evaluation were carried out. The exercise involved various overseas consultants through the FESP initiative at different phases of the project cycle. It is best to use the words of the “Measurement and Evaluation” consultant:

In Fiji we have introduced a technique called ‘*Contribution Analysis*’ to the country evaluation. Basically what it seeks to do is to not only get evidence of achievements in project or programme objectives, goals, and outputs, but more importantly to try and get an idea of what contribution this programme or the project is making to the partner agencies strategic objectives. In our case with FESP, we have implemented this strategy in the last eighteen months - nearly two years. What we actually do is align the objective of the programme and implementation system to the strategic objective of the MOE, and in turn to the national objective so that we can see if we are achieving our outputs in reference to the logical framework analysis. If you are achieving your outputs then you are achieving your component objective. Then what you do is you link these outcomes to the component objectives and see how these contribute to national outcomes as strategic objectives of the MOE.

Programme approaches are much more flexible than the traditional three-five year projects approach. The

three year or five year project tended to focus on the design documents which fixed to the duration of an undertaking and you get some marginal changes from year to year but not major changes. Whereas a 'Programme Approach' often uses a rolling annual plan as we do. We have a rolling annual plan. Within a budget framework, the programme is open to consultation with the partner agencies within the MOE to each year develop and take on board new activities as old activities have been finished and new priorities emerged from within the MOE. This is part of the flexibility of the programme approach.

(Semi-structured interview (*Talanoa*), 18th May, 2007, Ministry of Education)

Even though evaluation exercises took place, few changes were taken into consideration when suggestions were proposed by the LTC staff. Nevertheless those who responded hoped that some of the recommendations would be given consideration later and contribute to improved aid delivery in the future. A member of the senior staff expressed some of his reservations about the "measurement and evaluation process" and noted:

There was too much M&E and a lot of money has been directed for overseas consultants to do it. There was a joke '*How sustainable is the Sustainability Advisor*' because of the frequent visits of the Advisor. We thought AusAID would not take on board anything that was not sustainable, but nevertheless allow the 'Sustainability Advisor' to visit the LTCUP, three times in a year with all the required perks and conditions of AusAID consultants terms and conditions.

(Semi-structured interview (*Talanoa*), 6th March, 2007, Lautoka Teachers College)

In the evaluation and measurement process, a lot has been documented, however the concern is how these findings can be

implemented in the future as a guide to deliver effective aid for education development.

Mutual Accountability

The aid initiative examined in this study presents a challenge to those concerned with the management of aid results. There is no binding policy that stipulates the responsibility of the donor to sustain the project. However to ensure sustainability the Fiji government through the MOE now has the responsibility to fund the recurrent costs of the completed Projects. Sustainability is discussed further in the later part of this chapter as one of the yardsticks of aid effectiveness, but at this stage it is important to point out that senior staff of LTC are concerned that this will not be easy:

There is no agreement that commits the GOF to that effect. There was nothing in 'black and white'. The only thing I read was that letter from the MOE, when the consultants were asking me for the librarian and the IT technician. I asked them, 'Where is it written in the MOU? Did you put those things in your agreement?' The GOF only stated that it will release officers but it was not specific. They did not negotiate the contract properly in the MOE; they assumed a lot of things. One of these things was the provision of necessary staff: there is no funding and we cannot cope. Although we submitted our budget to the MOE for cabinet approval for three years (2004, 2005, & 2006) nothing was done, but in one year the Cabinet did approve \$366,000.00 for LTC for implementation, but someone in Marela forgot to give it to MOF (Ministry of Finance) and not a cent came.

(Semi-structured interview (*Talanoa*), 6th March, 2007, Lautoka Teachers College)

In the case of the FATEP initiative, another senior staff member made similar comments about the lack of follow up funding by the government and noted:

In terms of the GOF's commitment to FCAE continuing, yes there was a definite commitment to that because there was a great need for trained teachers. But I think in terms of the sustainability of those aspects that have been paid for through the donor funds, things like buildings, equipment, textbooks, the government was not able to sustain those because they did not really have the necessary funds. The GOF was not able to sustain the level of expenditure necessary to sustain the FATEP.

(Semi-structured interview (*Talanoa*), 27th May, 2007, Fiji College of Advanced Education)

Another of the consultants endorsed both these comments about the government's failure to meet its commitment for the recurrent cost of the project, saying:

There is no budget for the maintenance of these buildings by the MOE. There is no maintenance budget for any part of the facilities within the LTC. The likelihood of those buildings being maintained in good condition is very low unless the Principal and the Staff of LTC are able to find ways of generating income to keep the buildings in a good repairable state.

There are more electricity outlets, a lot of air-conditions are being installed, a high demand of electricity and lighting, computer use, the new hostel facilities for accommodation for 150 ladies and there were new demands on those sorts of utilities. Again there isn't a budget to support that. The sustainability of those sorts of things is in question unless the MOE provides money to sustain those sorts of issues.

(Semi-structured interview (*Talanoa*), 7th March, 2007, Lautoka Teachers College)

Meeting the recurrent costs in order to sustain the project is a real concern. The situation has been aggravated by poor governance through the country's dwindling financial reserves and the global recession. Although the education sector receives the biggest

allocation of budget, a substantial amount (90%) is directed to salaries, leaving little money for any capital development (Puamau 2000; MOE, 2005). The financial constraints have serious implications for the recurrent costs of aid initiatives like the LTCUP and FATEP. It can be envisaged that with the increasing number and different magnitudes of aid projects, large sums of money and special funding provisions will be required to sustain them. Although still new and therefore in good condition, in the near future the new capital facilities at LTC will require significant funding for maintenance and to off-set depreciation.

Conclusion

The research has established that in the process of aid delivery the measurement of effectiveness is important. There are some lessons to be learnt through ongoing assessment and how the AusAID projects studied here can be used as a benchmark and to identify areas for improvement.

Findings from the data generated at the *talanoa* sessions by a wide range of stakeholders suggest that to account for the diversity of issues involved, effectiveness of any aid donor project requires a number of measurement tools. For the purpose of this research, four yardsticks or instruments of measurement were used to gauge the effectiveness of delivery of the projects. These are discussed in the next chapter.

Chapter 8

Measuring Achievements

While there is impressive convergence in international development goals, there is growing interest in seeing aid agencies demonstrate more effectively the purpose and value of their interventions (Khalid Malik (2000) Director UNDP Evaluation Office).

Introduction

The previous chapter analysed the profile of the field studies and discussed the respondents' experiences. The case studies were explored through semi-structured interviews and *talanoa* sessions as a way of collecting the critical comments of all those engaged either directly or indirectly in the delivery mechanisms of the FATEP and LTCUP development projects. This chapter is the second part of the analysis and focuses on measuring of the effectiveness of aid delivery. This section uses the four qualitative yardsticks proposed in the conceptual framework of the research (Figure 2) which are referred to again in the summary and conclusion (Chapter 9). These are effectiveness, efficiency, sustainability and responsiveness.

According to Kelly (2004), there are qualitative measuring tools that can be used to gauge the actual organisational operation of a project which allow both for an examination to be made of the synergy and coherence of components and the efficiency with which organisational functions are carried out.

Results on the Ground

The focal question of interest is, “Were effective mechanisms of aid delivery in place and used properly?” It is very all well to speak of procedures in the abstract: here we are asking “Did they make a difference to development outcomes on the ground?” There is evidence at both the macro level and the specific micro level that the projects discussed here made a material contribution to development. At the general level aid has played a critical role in education development reform, contributing to significant gains in teacher development, the upgrading of teacher certification to diploma level, and the improvement of capital facilities to support these initiatives. These strengths did not come without associated weaknesses however, as indicated by the record of the two aid projects discussed in the thesis particularly in chapters five (5) and six (6), as well as in some detail in chapter eight (8).

The improvements in training and infrastructure have been significant. The EU funded capital investment aspect of the LTCUP project greatly improved the buildings while the development of the diploma programme by AusAID raised the quality of the teacher qualification. The investment made a vast difference especially to the resources and the delivery capacity at teacher training institutions in Fiji. This has been well received by the government because it addressed an area of need identified in the national five year plan focused on MOE 2006 Strategic Development Direction 2006-2011 and some of the recommendations raised in the FIEC by Coxon in the 2000 report which were highlighted in the previous chapter.

In the previous chapter too, highlighted the various stages of the projects and used statements made by respondents and stakeholders

in which they talked about their experience with the projects. Their extended comments were placed in the context of the Principles of Aid Effectiveness as stated in the Forum Secretariat's Pacific Principles of Aid Effectiveness. In this chapter I will analyse the effectiveness of the case studies using the proposed yardstick as presented in Figure 2 Conceptual Framework in chapter 2. These measuring tools have been used as a way of evaluating how the LTCUP project operated and they allow for an examination to be made of the synergy and coherence between the field achievements, the organisational identity, and functions (Kelly, 2004).

Efficiency

Strictly speaking, it can be stated that LTCUP was inefficient because it was not completed within the proposed timeframe. The project was granted a year's extension for the Diploma programme because it did not commence until 2006. The delay meant that it failed to meet the initial MOE Strategic Plan 2003-2004, Objective 4 which emphasised that "Developing and Supporting a Professional teaching force" including the upgrade of LTC's Primary Certificate to Diploma level that was supposed to be in place by 2005 (MOE, 2005).

The failure of the project to meet this deadline was caused by a number of factors. The major drawback was the delay in implementing the building project funded by the EU. This resulted in AusAID having to delay the software component of the upgrade. The inflexibility of the supervisor and the building contractor and the differences this created with the EU building clerk resulted in poor interpersonal relationships which slowed down construction work. According to the EU building clerk:

The building contractor tried to use some inferior building materials to save costs. The EU does not allow any sub-standard materials to compromise the standard and the credibility of the infrastructure. On a number of occasions I had to tell him to get quality material as stated in the building plan. However the building supervisor did not listen.

When it came to authorisation for the release of funds, I disagreed because the contractor failed to adhere to my suggestions and produced sub-standard work. The supervisor then made the changes because I was not going to recommend any release of funds to pay them. The supervisor's arrogant ways to save money by using cheap building material delayed building.

The supervisor continued to behave like this until the tail end of the project when we took the drastic action to remove him. Only then could the project get on schedule but it was already delayed

(Semi-structured interview (*Talanoa*), 27th May, 2007, EU Office Suva)

The diploma programme was not ready for implementation because certain essential support services such as the IT, the library, classroom blocks, and other infrastructure were incomplete. The Permanent Secretary for Education had no choice but to postpone the introduction of the programme to commence in 2006.

If, using the measures of value for money and operational efficiency, the efficiency of the project is to be gauged by the effective use of resources, then in this case reservation must be expressed. The project cost more than anticipated and “the optimal transformation of inputs to outputs (UNDP, 2000)⁶⁷ was not achieved, although, as already stated, there were some improvements in the infrastructure and the curriculum pedagogical upgrade.

⁶⁷ UNDP, A Handbook for Programme Managers: Result where the minimum input of resources (may it be human, capital or any other form), – oriented Monitoring and Evaluation, OESP, 1997, p.26.

One of the concerns raised about project sustainability was that the government's contribution was not forthcoming and this was a matter of concern repeated by a number of respondents during the *talanoa* sessions.

Through the professional development initiative of the project, teaching staff and support staff have been able to up-skill themselves. Subsequently, some have left the institution and taken up better employment opportunities elsewhere. A few made use of the value added to their qualifications to emigrate overseas. The biggest concern was the loss of intellectual knowledge marked by the departure of those who benefited during the project. This loss could not be made up overnight or sustained by incoming staff members. As a consequence the quality of the programme was compromised and the efficiency of the programme placed at risk. One of the respondents highlighted the problem of staff turnover by saying:

There was a lot of money put into Human Resources to developing the Human Resources. All lecturers have to undergo some kind of professional development (study). At the end of the FATEP most of the lecturers left. Now there are only four left of those who were originally trained. Many have left for overseas while others have left for USP. Their replacements did not go through any training at all. Most of the original courses are still being used; they have not been reviewed. There has not been much change at all even though it has been used and used. Maybe they are waiting for another accreditation. Basically whatever courses that were designed at that time (>10 years ago) are what is in the ground now, because people who contributed to the original design of the curriculum have gone, and people who came in later simply carried on with very little or no input for any change at all without any training.

(Semi-structured interview (*Talanoa*), 28th March, 2007, Lautoka Teachers College)

The marketability of those who participated in the training was considerably enhanced and opened up new employment opportunities for them. Ways of retaining them, such as placing them in a bond of two or three years, were not put in place and it was understandable that qualified staff sought better employment opportunities elsewhere especially as it was accompanied by increased remuneration.

Effectiveness

The effectiveness of an initiative may be measured by the relative importance and extent to which the development intervention's objectives were achieved (Murphy, 2004). On this measure of how well the objective or the intended output of the project was translated into actual achievements and outputs, it can be concluded that there were mixed results. Further, exploration of the question about what the impact of the project achieved does not provide a clear answer: results were mixed. An aggregate measure of the merit or worth of intervention was also used to attain and provide both a measure of sustainability and institutional development.

Curriculum

The development and implementation of the accredited diploma programme was a hallmark achievement and replaced the old certificate programme. The new programme was a great improvement over the old where the students took more control of their learning compared to the hand-handling or spoon feeding style previously. New integrated 'enrichment courses'⁶⁸ were included in the new programme. Although it took longer to implement it than anticipated,

⁶⁸ These course are done outside school hours; they are not core subjects but students need to achieve their credit points in order to graduate.

the delay was worth it. One of the respondents highlighted the review process and the quality of the new curriculum noting:

The development of the new curriculum is certainly the main strength of the Programme at this point in time.

The programme itself is quite sustainable - it's been developed by the lecturers in the college, it's being trialed by them, it's being taught by them and revised by them and it doesn't cost anything really to actually do those activities. It is something that can go on and on as long as people in LTC feel that it is important to provide the best quality programme that they can every semester. There seems to be a commitment to doing that.

(Semi-structured interview (*Talanoa*), 7th March, 2007, Lautoka Teachers College)

However, one of the concerns raised about the impact of the curriculum pedagogies focused on the fact that, while it had improved it had also increased the cost of student teachers' training needs. As a result more funding was required to purchase additional teaching resources. Those responsible for the course upgrade were keen to observe any improvement and noted how teachers can transform the lives of the children in the education system without, however, giving full consideration to the input required for this. This push for on-going improvements had a great deal of support as illustrated by one respondent:

There is a need to review the courses and re-look at their directions, to be compatible with the market demand and to explore other specific areas now.

(Semi-structured interview (*Talanoa*), 28th March, 2007, Lautoka Teachers College)

One of the consultants pointed out that the effectiveness of the curriculum could not yet be assured:

There is no hard data yet to tell us whether the programmes developed in the college having been taught now for a period of three years are making any impact on learning on children. Until we have that then we can not really claim that the curriculum is a success, but people tend to like what we are doing and how it is being delivered, but we have no data yet to prove that the children are learning any better.

You can't manufacture that data, you have to wait until people have been teaching in schools for a while to see whether there is a difference between graduates of the programme LTCUP and the non-graduates of the programme.

(Semi-structured interview (*Talanoa*), 28th March, 2007, Lautoka Teachers College)

In 2006 the LTCUP curriculum was developed, implemented, evaluated, and accredited and the first graduates of DPE began teaching in 2007. However, the first graduates of the ECE one-year programme, began teaching in 2006. In 2006, the LTCUP was integrated and became part of the FESP initiative. This lasted until June 2008 when the curriculum and the programme were re-accredited. In support of this change one consultant concurred that:

One of the important tasks of the FESP programme now is to evaluate the impact of the Diploma in primary education compared to the Certificate in primary education on learning and teaching in schools throughout Fiji. That impact study is meant to go on for a number of years to find out whether there has been any benefit to the country and the children in schools of this changing curriculum and changing pedagogies which has been implemented in the college.

Another consideration that has occurred, and the college has to take it into account, is the move by the MOE to revise the Primary and the EC curriculum frameworks, and FESP has been charged with helping the GOF to do that so that over the next few years there will be a new primary curriculum and EC framework rolled out into schools across the country. One of the implications of that in its new directions it has

occurred in the college this year is that existing teachers will need to have quite a lot of in-service into the new curriculum and into the pedagogies that are going to be used in delivering that curriculum. As well as that, these teachers in the main have a certificate in Primary teaching. The MOE through LTC will have to provide opportunities for those people to upgrade to Diploma or go to USP and do the B.Ed degrees, so a new initiative in the College. With regards to IT in the library components, they are particularly working well to support the learning programmes of the college and it looks like it will be fairly well sustainable by the college and the MOE. The IT however is a major concern because while it is a good programme in terms of a learning teaching programme, there is huge infrastructure cost involved.

(Semi-structured interview (*Talanoa*), 28th March, 2007, Lautoka Teachers College)

During the curriculum design phase, considerable concern was expressed about the scheduling of the appropriated curriculum advisors when the education consultant could not be sure of funding owing to logistical arrangements. Although the other courses were supposed to take their lead from Education, the LTCUP curriculum review took the opposite stance. One of the lecturers noted:

The Practicums 1, 2, & 3 are very ambitious. If you look at those competencies they are not articulated in the courses that are offered here. There is a 'miss-match' because the education consultant for the practicum was the last to design the course reviews after all the other courses in the subject designed their competencies. They have gone ahead with their courses without looking at the competencies. Now that we have to look at the matrix 'like putting the cart before the horse' where Education should be seen to take the leading role for the other subject areas to take their queue from, but this did not happen in the LTCUP. The timing of the consultant's input is very important. The consultant came to review the Education and Social Science, but returned home because she was not happy with her contract caused by some logistic

misunderstanding. As a result an additional consultant was brought in to design the Practicum before the Education was reviewed. The HOS Education was reviewing the four courses till Penny came very late to review it.

The HOS Education has requested for another consultant to review the DPE120 so that they can align the competencies with the 'practicum'. Therefore the timing has to be looked at very closely.

The timing of the consultants was one of the major weaknesses of the LTCUP.

The Special Education course has phased out but the reviewed curriculum integrated through 'Inclusive Education' which is much wider than special education. It has a wider definition scope than Special Education which currently addresses the problem in the school system e.g. slow readers, basically focus in numeracy and literacy. It does not actually address the problem, but it makes referral to the appropriate forum.

(Semi-structured interview (*Talanoa*), 28th March, 2007, Lautoka Teachers College)

The new diploma curriculum did not schedule consultant input which made effective coordination of the course review difficult. As pointed out by one of the lecturers, preparation of the curriculum matrix before other work was like "putting the cart before the horse". There have been other scheduling difficulties. Recently the Curriculum Development Unit (CDU) has endorsed a new National Curriculum Framework (NCF). This raises another issue regarding the validity and the reliability of the LTC Diploma curriculum and pedagogies; the LTC and FCAE should have worked in coordination with the NCF. From the donor's perspective through the consultants, they worked within their 'terms of reference'. Any innovation would require the review of their TOR. It is the role of the MOE to align the NCF and convince the

School of Primary Teacher Education of the FNU that the alignment process takes place.

One of the components of the DPE was an introduction to IT and a substantial amount of money was invested to establish IT services to a state of the art standard in the western education division. As one of the consultants observed, this will be difficult to sustain:

The IT computers provided by the LTCUP have a working life of around about three years; that means that the MOE and LTC within a three year period will have to find something like \$160,000.00 to \$180,000.00 to replace those computers. One way of doing that is for the College to sell its service to teachers and community members and to use that money to maintain its infrastructure. If that doesn't happen then it is unlikely that IT will be sustainable because it doesn't appear that the MOE is in a position to fund that sort of cost.

I think the programme in terms of evaluation by the people within the college, by AusAID-TAG, investigation by FESP and ACIL M&E advisors, the LTCUP seems to have been generally very successful in what it has done. We still got to focus on building capacity of Leaders in the College and that's an ongoing programme.

(Semi-structured interview (*Talanoa*), 28th March, 2007, Lautoka Teachers College)

To sustain the IT initiative the College needs to operate in some autonomous manner and generate some income through a "user-pay" arrangement.

Capital Project

The capital infrastructure has served the general purpose of the LTCUP initiative and handled the increased college population. The extra three blocks of a three-storey hostel (Figure 7) provided

accommodation for all the students. Similarly the extension of the dining hall (Figure 8) provided enough space for resident students to eat together.

Figure 7 - Hostel Accommodation

Figure 8 - Dining Hall Extension

Provision of a lecture theatre (Figure 9) which seats 262 students was particularly welcomed, but even then it was not big enough to seat all 500 of the LTC student population and neither include the public or house a principal's conference session. There were also concerns about the acoustics. One critic pointed out that:

It did not take long to realise that the lecture theatre, while it was good, could have been expanded to accommodate more seating rather than the current 262 which is too big for only a year group but too small to accommodate the LTC community (500 people) for a mass assembly or gathering. I think not much thought has been put into it - like the multi-media system, our voices still echo in the lecture theatre. Even the new classrooms that were being built, why did not we build model classrooms as we try to model strategies of teaching in a model classroom. How can we model if the classroom is not friendly? We need to have classroom where we can have observation in micro-teaching in model classroom. There are a lot of dynamic things which could be done. We need someone with a thriving vision and we could have done much more.

(Semi-structured interview (*Talanoa*), 28th March, 2007, Lautoka Teachers College)

The lecture theatre was well set up with the latest digital equipment but, once again, this raises the issue of sustainability. Unless the GOF raises its budget, there is little hope that LTC will be in a position to maintain the standard of equipment and resources purchased during the upgrade. Another concern is the electricity bill which the College will incur if it is to run the air-conditioning and the lighting. Each of these presents an ongoing financial issue; all part of the legacy of poor planning of the project MOE and GOF when it is not addressed.

Figure 9 - Lecture Theatre

Human Resource Development

During the AusAID projects (FATEP, BEMTUP and LTCUP) the human resource development was well received through acquired marketable professional skills and various training opportunities. In the FATEP initiative the staff members enjoyed attachment opportunities to some recognised Australian universities and educational institutions while in the BEMTUP, the LTC staff members were exposed to a new working model of a decentralised approach to in-service education training. In the LTCUP, all the staff (academic, technical, and support staff) in different levels in the college benefited through some kind of professional development training, and some skill upgrading which enhanced their role in the general running of the college. The training improved their work standards and promoted the esteem in which

they hold their work (Sanga and Walker, 2005). However there is always room for improvement. One of the consultants agreed that while there was some improvement in the capacity of the staff there were some staff members who required attention but did not get it:

I think there are some individuals who have high competencies and high commitments and there are some who are at the other end of the spectrum, some real logs, who have no competency, hardly any interest, and very little capacity.....really that is not untypical of most organisations, I think there has been some shift in the capacity of people here. I think there has been a very definite change in the culture in the college. Those people who have taken up responsibilities and have been successful in the things that they do, have been fairly enthusiastic and fairly committed and want to keep on going. And we have some people though who are still happy to sit under the mango tree and have very little incentive.

(Semi-structured interview (*Talanoa*), 15th May, 2007, Fiji College of Advanced Education)

At the end of the LTCUP, all the lecturers who completed degree courses acquired an accredited qualification either to Bachelor of Masters level. Consequently, the staff felt motivated to enhance their performance through the knowledge and skills they acquired. According to one of the senior staff of LTC:

Almost all the staff (academic, technical, and un-established staff in different levels in the college) have benefited in one way or other from some kind of training for professional development or for skill upgrading to benefit their role in the general functions of the College. This has improved their work standards and promoted their work esteem. There is always room for improvements.

Getting time off for further training is always an issue especially when the courses are for a longer period of time; the release of officers is always a problem.

The next direction is to identify the needed skills and training for the workers to make a difference in their

workplace, especially when the training fund is exhausted very fast.

(Semi-structured interview (*Talanoa*), 6th March, 2007, Lautoka Teachers College)

However one issue that caused disquiet during the allocation of the professional development funding was related to the strong influence of the LTCUP Project Leader (PL) who had the final decision on what training would be funded for each staff member. As a result there was a continuous shift in the training policy guidelines because the PL had a lot of power to veto funds at his discretion. This caused a lot of frustration among some staff members because at times the professional development committee's decision was over-ruled by the PL.

In hindsight, one of the concerns raised by support staff was the disproportionate improvement in the facilities together with the staff of the college, without any attention being given to support staff. Consequently support staff have to work harder now, to maintain the added infrastructure, and to cook for more residential students without any additional workers. This bias in the division of labour resulted in extremely low morale among the support staff; they were ignored and made to feel like lesser mortals.

With a limited number of support staff, getting time off for further training was always an issue especially when the courses ran over a long period of time: the release of officers was always a problem. However another concern was to identify the skills needed and appropriate training for the workers that would make a difference to their performance. Given the scarcity of funds this was especially necessary.

In the LTC case, about fifty percent (50%) of those who were involved in the initial stage of LTCUP remain and others threaten to follow the FCAE experience. One of the consultants noted:

...the turn-over of people when they have moved on to other jobs, then the college recruits people who don't have those skills and the qualification. In itself that is not a bad thing because people who are educated are always going to make a difference, no matter where they are.

If that's the standard and we have a body in the college who has the majority of its lecturers with Masters qualification, then that should become the minimum qualification requirement (MQR) in the future for recruitment. People don't come in unless they have Masters degree or unless they are studying towards it.

Even if people have got the skills and try to apply them, the culture is such that it does not quite often support their efforts, so people often feel disillusion in that. Why try to be effective and efficient when the MOE itself is not effective and efficient in many ways.

(Semi-structured interview (*Talanoa*), 7th March, 2007, Lautoka Teachers College)

When the time, effort, and costs associated with the need to recruit, hire, and train replacement staff is factored in, the loss of staff represents a loss of resources which has major productivity implications. Although there is little control of staff turnover, incentives could be implemented to retain high quality teaching staff such as raising their salaries. Alternatively, it has been realised that the need to be competitive and to make sure the LTC maintains its competitive edge through the increase in remuneration which should be supported by improved performance or evidence of the increased value of the employee to the institution level of productivity. Consequently the workers' morale increases when they enjoy their workplace and are paid in a manner that is perceived to be consistent

with their contribution (Lazear, 2006; Feldstein, 2008). Compatible teaching staff with high qualifications enhances a high standard of performance and ensures a good quality of teacher training. In essence it is the quality of teachers that determines the quality and standard of the education system.

At the end of the LTCUP all the lecturers had accredited qualification either to Bachelor of Masters level. Consequently, the staff felt motivated to enhance their performance through the knowledge and skills they acquired. According to one of the senior staff of LTC:

Almost all the staff (academic, technical, and un-established staff in different levels in the college) have benefited in one way or other from some kind of training for professional development or for skill upgrading to benefit their role in the general functions of the College. This has improved their work standards and promoted their work esteem. There is always room for improvements.

Getting time off for further training is always an issue especially when the courses are for a longer period of time; the release of officers is always a problem.

The next direction is to identify the needed skills and training for the workers to make a difference in their workplace, especially when the training fund is exhausted very fast.

(Semi-structured interview (*Talanoa*), 6th March, 2007, Lautoka Teachers College)

However one issue that caused disquiet during the allocation of the professional development funding was related to the strong influence of the LTCUP Project Leader (PL) who had the final decision on what training would be funded for each staff member. As a result there was a continuous shift in the training policy guidelines because the PL

had a lot of power to veto funds at his discretion. This caused a lot of frustration among some staff members because at times the professional development committee's decision was over-ruled by the PL.

Responsiveness

The two case studies demonstrate that AusAID was willing to respond to the recommendations of the Fiji government for the need to upgrade the two teacher training institutions. The EU also needs to be acknowledged for its role in providing the buildings that housed the computers and “soft-ware” provided by AusAID (reviewed in chapters 5 and 6). The aid donors should be commended for their responsiveness to the recommendations.

However, overall project implementation demonstrated a lack of cultural sensitivity; to boldly build a library (Figure 3) on an important space or *rara*⁶⁹ after the LTC community strongly objected was an unnecessary affront. The project neglected and failed to respect the value and the cultural significance of this space even after being approached with an explanation and reminders of this. As the MOE of education was desperate to complete the LTCUP which was already behind schedule, the cultural significance of the *rara* was ignored. For most of the LTC community the library is an ‘eye soar’ because locals’ need was dominated by the donor’s interest. Heine and Chutaro (2005:145) concluded that ‘donors pay limited attention to cultural meanings and values of recipient country’

⁶⁹ Rara is an open space in a Fijian setting which has a cultural significance where cultural gatherings and functions take place.

The *rara* had been an ideal spot where traditional cultural activities were practiced and showcased. The LTC graduates were expected to acquire some cultural values in the course of their training and in turn, pass on these skills to the pupils they teach in different parts of Fiji. The loss of the *rara* demonstrated total disregard for the importance of this site and its significance for cultural performance that had always been a part of teacher training. According to Thaman (2002:4) teacher educators need to create more culturally democratic environment for trainees.

When the staff and students objected, the builder ignored them and proceeded with the construction of the library using the TOR and the MOU as justification. The college now lacks an appropriate area in which to conduct cultural activities. The library, like the lecture theatre, is too small and often crowded that it can not accommodate all of the LTC students.

The project needed to be more responsive and sensitive to the cultural context and to build on existing activities with minimal impact on the status quo (Larmour, 1977; Hooper, 2000). Failing to do so essentially amounted to negligence and generated considerable resentment. Although the new library was a more modern resource, the cultural needs of the recipient community were seriously compromised.

Sustainability

At the end of any project the critical question posed is that of sustainability. The recipient country needs to show the political commitment to sustain aid investments (Veitayaki and Novaczek, 2005). One of the indicators is support for the recurrent costs through an appropriate budgetary allocation. However if the recipient country

is faced with financial constraints, then the MOU needs to clarify what this means if genuine partnership and commitment (as in the partnership between GOF and AusAID) has been agreed upon. Early in the negotiation process the parties need to formulate an ongoing binding commitment to ensure that full provision is made to cover contingencies and so increase the likelihood of ensuring sustainability⁷⁰. However, Pollard (2005: 174) argue that recipient countries need to develop their own development strategies, otherwise donors will impose their predetermined criteria which can lead to disjointed outcomes.

In the early part of Chapter 8 the sustainability of the project was discussed. Indicators have shown that both the original FATEP project and the later LTCUP project faced considerable financial constraints. To address the sustainability issues, an integrated plan needed to be drawn up as part of the MOU which should have included some assurance by the donor country to support the ongoing work. One of the respondents affirmed this saying:

The need for the recipient government's sustainability of the Project can be achieved through options with budgeting and flexibility for the LTC principal to have some autonomy in operations. All responsible stakeholders need to be mindful of the sustainability issues of the initiative. A lot of money and effort has been put into the Project and it will be lost if it is not sustained. It will be a complete waste of time.

(Semi-structured interview (*Talanoa*), 6th March, 2007, Lautoka Teachers College)

⁷⁰ I realise that this may lead to delayed approaches and donors will be reluctant to accept on-going maintenance costs but funding should be put in a longer term framework of perhaps a decade to make sure all real funding issues are taken into account.

To adequately address the issues of sustainability of the LTCUP case study project and the FATEP as background information, some issues were raised and categorised into the following for consideration.

Lessons Learnt through FATEP and LTCUP

The implementation of the two projects saw the transition of increasing educational aid to Fiji particularly through AusAID (Puamau, 2005). Although AusAID improved their delivery mechanisms, there remains room for improvement. The final section of this chapter outlines the details of the highlighted lessons learnt and the needs for improved aid delivery. These issues arose out of the following stages in the aid delivery process.

Project Implementation

In contrast to the FATEP, the design of the LTCUP courses, stakeholders from different walks of life contributed and assisted in the curriculum design. According to one of the former lecturers at FCAE:

Unlike the FATEP where the stakeholders were not involved in the process, at LTCUP from the initial consultation we were involved. We actually knew what to include and what not to include with the contribution of the stakeholders.

(Semi-structured interview (*Talanoa*), 7th March 2007, Lautoka Teachers College)

This consultation process was one of the strengths of the LTCUP. Apart from these initial stakeholders, staff from similar training institutions such as USP CCTC and FC became involved.

A former member of the FATEP staff also affirmed the efficiency of the LTCUP consultation process and acknowledged the sensitivity of the cultural aspects:

I really liked the consultative process through the reference group which is made up of local experts and they come in from different areas as key stakeholders. I think is a wonderful way to go.

The shift from the Australian way of doing things to be more culturally sensitive and try to be more context sensitive to the Fiji situation was well acknowledged.

One of the examples was the time and the effort taken over in the food to feed the reference group participants. We love that food. For us indigenous people we judge the criteria of the workshops through the quality of food. For us we would score on the food very high on the day. We really appreciated this gesture.

(Semi-structured interview (*Talanoa*), 27th May, 2007, Fiji College of Advanced Education)

Resources

The FATEP also experienced similar funding difficulties. According to a former lecturer at FCAE who was part of the FATEP:

In terms of the funding, to purchase the books was not sustainable at all, because they are old and they have to be replaced. I don't think that the sustainability issue was built in to the FATEP design in the first place. I think that is a problem and challenge with sustainability at every single project that they will all have to face with aid money.

(Semi-structured interview (*Talanoa*), 27th May, 2007, Fiji College of Advanced Education)

Another FATEP lecturer agreed and pointed out that there was a lack of commitment by the Fiji government to sustaining the initiative:

The only physical structure during the FATEP was the library. Sustainability was a big problem in terms of non-replacing of computers after the project ceases. The Fiji government could not fund the recurring cost of the computers to maintain them however; it took another programme like the FESP-European Union to fund it for its sustainability.

(Semi-structured interview (*Talanoa*), 19th June, 2007, Fiji College of Advanced Education)

It is clear that because of the lack of commitment on the part of the recipient country the two projects have generated a lot of concern regarding sustainability. However, while there are instances where recipient countries clearly outline their commitments in the MOU, unfortunately, for a number of reasons this does not always translate into action. Lack of finance remains an underlying issue. One alternative is to engagement of donors over a longer period of time to assure the project sustainability. This should be integrated as part of the TOR and MOU.

Training

The two projects had different staff training programme arrangements. During the FATEP the staff enjoyed short term attachments to Australian Universities and USP without any formal agreement. Although in the Project document there was an agreement for two (2) lecturers to pursue their Masters degree, this allocation was changed to accommodate more staff members for short courses and short attachments. A few lecturers were allowed to do Distance Flexible Learning (DFL).

In the case of the LTCUP there was special provision for funding professional staff development. A committee was established to

identify college training needs and the selection criteria was laid down for staff members who would undergo accredited training. Many members of staff obtained Bachelors Degrees (4) and Masters Degrees (12) as a part of that. They are now much better qualified.

There were programmes run to improve skills and qualifications of non-academic staff, including cleaning staff and kitchen staff. This has been a very successful program. According to one of the respondents, who was at FCAE during the FATEP, raised her views of the LTCUP staff training that it was very rewarding:

The LCTUP training programme was wonderful and very effective because there was training across the board of both academic and support staff.

The whole lot too depends on the TL who was culturally sensitive, who listened, who wanted to consult widely with local staff, then living there for a long time it helps too in that way to make sure that the project is relevant and tries to meet the needs of the stakeholders.

(Semi-structured interview (*Talanoa*), 27th May, 2007, Fiji College of Advanced Education)

The personal learning was relevant for people in the college and helped them to do their jobs a lot better. This promoted their self esteem. However there were some staff members who studied independently and funded their own studies because they began to realise the value of doing so.

Student Selection Process

In the past, the LTC selection was carried out remotely by the MOE through the Career Section. The College had neither any involvement in, nor any control over, the selection process. One of the changes in the MOU of the LTCUP, endorsed by the Education Permanent

Secretary was for LTC to take full responsibility for selecting the students. According to one of the consultants:

There is hardly any student intake now, if any at all, who come in through the 'back door', 'nepotism' or 'scholarship through people in powerful offices'. The selection is very transparent.

(Semi-structured interview (*Talanoa*), 7th March, 2007, Fiji College of Advanced Education)

During the LTCUP initiative an IT computer-based selection system was installed the college. The new system ensures both a transparent and quality selection process - not followed in the past - and allows the new intake to be enrolled two weeks earlier than in the past when a delay by three to four weeks was common.

Conclusion

In this chapter, information has been presented on how the two projects were implemented. The voices of the stakeholders are very clear and they were willing to express their views about the various phases and reception given to each of the aid projects. Some of issues raised independently replicate statements made in the Paris Declaration and rephrased in the Pacific Aid Effectiveness Principles. A continuing concern is the issue of sustainability especially following the withdrawal of funding at the end of the implementation phase. This is a particularly marked characteristic when the recipient country is not committed to fund the recurrent costs required.

The concluding chapter provides a suggested aid model in the form of the metaphor of an '*aid bure*'. This model embodies the relevant best practice principles which provide a guide that can ensure that the

process and mechanisms of effective aid delivery are made to work for Fiji and other Pacific countries. In the conclusion some recommendations were proposed to ensure that future aid, particularly for education development, is managed and coordinated effectively.

Chapter 9

Summary and Conclusion

More effective development means improvement in the lives of hundreds of millions of people; more food on the table, healthier babies, more children in school. These are things worth fighting for and properly managed, foreign aid can make a big contribution. (World Bank Report, 2006)

Introduction

The previous two chapters highlighted concerns that arose from the analysis of the two case studies. Evidence was presented which documented at both the policy level and individual level how aid activities have contributed materially to education development in Fiji. For example, aid has been central to educational development reform, it has contributed to substantial gains in the professional development of teacher training and qualifications by upgrading teacher certificate to diploma level. Investment has also been made in improving capital facilities to support these initiatives. Strengths and weakness were also discussed particularly in Chapters 5 and 6 and in more detail in Chapters 7 and 8.

This chapter summarises the findings of my study through the *talanoa* sessions and other data sources which were triangulated and translated into a matrix summary of the respondents (Table 14). An *aid bure* model is offered as a heuristic device for evaluating aid effectiveness in Fiji and the wider Pacific. The model also presents a new way of viewing best practice and, I believe, provides an effective way of monitoring aid delivery and the relationships required. The model incorporates both the Pacific Principles of Aid Effectiveness and

the Paris Declaration. The chapter concludes by offering recommendations for effective aid delivery.

Table 14
Summary of Respondents – LTCUP

	No	Planning	Implementation	Review	Evaluation
AusAID Donor		Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
EU-Donor		Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
MOF Officers	5	Some	No	Some	Some
Contractors	5	No	Yes	Partly	Partly
MOE Officers	15	4/15	5/15	2/15	2/15
Principal - LTC	1	No	Yes	No	Yes
Lecturers –LTC	34	No	All	None	None
Students Teachers	25	No	9/25	10/25	5
Support Staff	10	No	4	No	No
Project Leader	1	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Consultants (LT)	5	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Consultants (ST)	5	No	Yes	No	Yes
Consultants (EU)	2	Yes	Yes	No	Yes
Reference Groups	10	No	5/10	No	No
Parents	5	No	No	No	No
Community	15	No	7/15	No	No

* Short Term * Long Term

Source: Adapted from Ruru 2007. Field data

In analysing the matrix summary table of the respondents above (Table 13), it is obvious that the donors and the overseas consultants had more influence in the delivery of the LTCUP. The findings supported the assertions of the respondents in the previous chapter during the *talanoa* sessions, semi structures interviews and other data collection methods. The summary raises some concerns of the recipients' lack of local voice and participation and the fact that more than sixty percent (60%) of the project engagements failed to involve the aid recipients. Consequently the question of power relations in the LTCUP initiative proved that 'donor interests' has been imposed and controlled the access to resources while the 'recipient needs' are compromised. Sanga (2003: 44) argue that 'in educational projects, a micro level analysis would show that donors often set the agenda for

the aid activities, define the terms of reference for consultancies and pose the questions for problem identification'. However the summary does not undermine the positive outcomes of the project and the need of the locals to build on their capacity to support their competency in their engagements in other projects. The capacity building of the local counter parts will enhance their engagement in their power relations and partnership.

Summary of Findings

There is not much joy in critically assessing the disquiet which emerged out of my analysis of the LTCUP and the FATEP initiatives. For me this was not just an academic exercise, it was part of a burning passion which challenged me to raise matters of both personal and professional concern about what constitutes the best aid delivery practices and what do these allow for? In the absence of a strong local voice in the planning and implementation of projects, how can local skills and capabilities be identified? Can measures of project implementation and efficiency be said to apply if these skills and capabilities are ignored? If local knowledge is equal to or better than that of exorbitantly paid overseas consultants with a limited understanding of both the local context and socio-cultural values, why then are these overseas consultants allowed to continue in a dominant role?

Negotiation of aid implementation has long been considered as the shared responsibility of both donor and recipient. While this theoretically holds true, both parties are required to demonstrate genuine partnership in forging a mutual relationship between equals.; Dollar & Levin, (2006) argued that donor governments everywhere are

overstretched in terms of cash, human resources, skills, and expertise and should therefore limit committing their resources only to what recipient communities are unable to do for themselves. This applies to Third World countries in the Pacific like Fiji. However, I remain unconvinced that donors in general exercise their power in a fully respectful, egalitarian manner. Preference is given to a paternalistic approach that subordinates locals and is designed to make aid donors look like indispensable providers (Mascarenhas & Sandler, 2006).

Those who responded to the opportunity to comment during the *talanoa* sessions held after the withdrawal of funding from both projects under consideration for this study, admitted that their experience had changed the way they looked at the aid delivery process. Many could see a mixture of strengths and weaknesses. Some respondents judged it critically and spoke strongly about how it seemed very much like a foreign project over which they could attain little ownership. Some local staff believed the project problems had their origin in the overly-ambitious approach of Australian consultants who were preoccupied with keeping the projects on schedule and sticking to agreements which, as implementation went ahead, seemed less and less sensible. However, this was also a learning experience for all and locals acquired an enhanced perspective of their knowledge and skills that they could subsequently use as consultants although they were not paid to provide these while the Projects were still operating.

A series of lessons can be drawn from the FATEP and LTCUP experiences. Not least among these is that aid recipients should be encouraged to engage and instigate proactive actions in various phases of negotiation including aid delivery. To provide for optimum

learning and the capture of useful inputs a flexible rather than a blueprint approach should be adopted.

The relationship between donor and recipients is critically important. One can not function and engage fully without the other. Unequal engagement results in what Manor (2007a) has called “illusions of the mind”, a deception which, if unchecked, will not only undermine the sense of a shared perception of reality, but will also damage and hinder regional relations which in extreme cases can lead a nation and its people down the path of delusion and poverty because of unsustainable aid projects. This may be aggravated by indebtedness and when economic pressure builds up this exacerbates already wide disparity gaps. Poorly negotiated initiatives can add economic pressure to already critical situations. What arose from my research findings was a relatively simple, concrete model which might well serve to guide and support the formation of better relationships. I call it the *Aid Bure Model* (Figure 10).

Aid Bure Model⁷¹

The last decade has witnessed a paradigm shift in many aid donor countries and agencies from a traditional aid delivery arrangement to a more collaborative and sustainable approach primarily concerned with poverty reduction. If developing countries have to sustain important aid initiatives, imposed as a part of top-down approaches these must be dropped, not least because they have failed to address the most relevant needs of recipient countries (Wendt, 2000).

⁷¹ A bure is a Fijian name for a house. Elsewhere in the Pacific could be called *whare* (Maori), *fale* (Tonga), *fono* (Samoa). The strength of a bure is determined by the firmness of its foundation. The roof of a bure is supported by strong pillars.

The *aid bure* model is premised on the idea that well-planned practical aid interventions focus on two sets of key relationships: the donor interests and recipient needs which are necessary to reinvigorate thinking on the effectiveness of aid delivery. The model is a heuristic device, a practical guide to focus on and metaphorically contribute to the debate on aid effectiveness a simple concrete image of aid delivery processes.

Figure 10 - Aid Bure Model

Source: Adapted from Ruru 2008, Field data

To assess the indicators for effective aid delivery, the research has interpreted the four yardsticks as the pillars that support the aid bure

which are discussed in the previous chapter. These yardsticks rest on the foundation of the five key principles and underlying indicators of aid effectiveness. The five key principles and indicators of the global agenda of aid effectiveness are elaborated in the chapter eight. The four pillars have the capacity to support the aid initiative but only if the five global aid measurements and indicators have already been achieved through genuine partnership.

Cornerstones for Partnership

The strength of development assistance and development cooperation can be fully realised through the achievement of goals and objectives. In the model, the two cornerstones involved in the partnership of any aid intervention are the aid donors and the aid recipients. Valderrama (2004) emphasises that nothing shapes the future directions of aid more than the commitments donor and recipients make between them. These commitments can develop or destroy their relationship, but either way they define aid effectiveness.

For a genuine relationship to be formed, each party must acknowledge that they are unique in their own right. Therefore neither of the two can claim to be superior to the other but they need to complement each other. When a partner assumes a superior position, then the efficacy of a genuine aid partnership is seriously compromised. Genuine partnership is forged when each partner observes appropriate aid protocols.

Donors

Aid is not as effective as it could be and some donors are not living up to their commitments. According to the UNDP (2000) some donors

still maintain old-style relationships with developing countries by imposing policies rather than maintaining an open dialogue. The policies which donors propose should be based on the outcome of participatory policy dialogue with the stakeholders rather than imposing one based on the opinion of their (donor) experts. The policies should support and demonstrate a commitment to capacity building as a means of empowering the recipient country. Donors need to direct aid to be country-owned, harmonised, aligned with national plans, mutually accountable, results-based, and supported by shared policies. A minimum of conditions should be imposed by aid donors and they need to shift intervention from a 'tied aid' position. However, not all DAC donors are willing to untie their aid (UNDP, 2000); under such policies aid can not be harmonised and can result in the recipient country struggling under the burden of donor initiated activities (UNDP, 2000).

In the spirit of participatory engagement the recipient country needs to forge genuine consensus with donors when drawing up their project MOU. Similarly, if donors' needs are to be properly consistent with the recipient country's development strategies, the donor countries' interests should complement the recipient's needs. A mutual understanding is crucial in assuring ownership and the sustainability of any aid intervention.

Recipients

When the question of aid effectiveness is raised by a recipient government, it tends to focus on harmonisation. According to the UNDP (2000) the New Partnership for Africa's Development have asked donors to change the way they deliver aid, calling for mutual accountability and better policy coherence. The recipient country

needs to adhere to certain criteria and forge genuine partnerships which take in to account donor interest. The recipient country needs to have a clear set of development priorities. When this is in place donors are less likely to impose their own interests and are more likely to enhance and comply with the recipient country's vision and development strategies. Support for the realisation of such a vision will help aid donors by assuring them that the recipient country will claim ownership and take responsibility for the sustainability of the project. However the acknowledgement of the formation of consensus arrangements should be established in the early planning stage.

The recipient country needs to strengthen its financial accountability through transparent public financial management procedures. A sound accountability mechanism will assure strong utilisation of donor assistance. Donors are interested in the efficient and effective use of their funding assistance. Donor countries expect their assistance to be accounted for and directed solely to the intended purpose. Any misappropriation of donor funds can weaken the aid relationship and result in the failure of development projects. It is important that capacity building through human resource development prepares locals personnel to support and manage projects following principles of best practice.

Donors are interested in seeing that their assistance is delivered effectively. Therefore it is the responsibility of the recipient country to establish a reliable socio-economical framework to manage their domestic affairs through good governance and strong policies to encourage growth (Collier and Dollars, 2001). The involvement of various stakeholders can assure greater participation for community development in any aid project. Participation will also empower people and contribute to community development which in turn can promote

initiatives taken because the sense of ownership is assured. The recipient government needs to integrate the aid project into the budgetary process to ensure that once the donor withdraws the recurrent costs necessary to sustain the initiative are able to be met.

Theoretical Implications

The importance of harmonising ‘donor interests’ and ‘recipient needs’ cannot be underestimated. Once tied into an ongoing interactive relationship which entirely eschews a centralised, top-down, and inflexible arrangement that has led again and again to failed projects it becomes more likely that success will be achieved.

The *aid bure* model incorporates the moral imperatives of the Paris Declaration on Aid Effectiveness and uses them as a yardstick against which development progress can be measured. Internationally the five partnership commitments of the Declaration (namely, ownership, alignment, harmonisation, managing results, and mutual accountability) should form the foundation of the development compact between the developed and developing worlds. As part of this compact, the developed world is expected to increase overseas development assistance, and adhere to practices that will enhance the impact of aid on poverty reduction, promote equality, increase growth, build capacity, and accelerate achievement of the MDGs (OECD, 2006).

Both aid donors and aid recipients need to adhere to these commitments. However there are at least three major challenges to the principles agreed to the Paris Declaration and articulated in the

Pacific Principles of Aid Effectiveness. If aid is to be effective, these must be addressed.

First, it is inappropriate for recipient countries to accept subordination, especially when it is completely unnecessary (for example, undervaluing the skills of locally qualified people and qualifications). Local expertise should be acknowledged and given priority over hiring overseas consultants.

Second, if there is a demonstrable shortage of people with the appropriate administrative/management competences (for example, in planning), and the recipient country lacks the expertise to run a compatible aid relationship, it is clearly in the interests of the donor partner to build the capacity of local people. For the LTCUP initiative, this exercise was not enhanced by the donors to address the local needs

Thirdly, the absence of transparent and ethical administrative practices resulting in a history of nepotism, cronyism, and corruption (for example, charging fees for assigning building and consultant contracts) should not be ignored. It is the recipient partner's responsibility to address this behaviour which undermines the quality of aid effectiveness. During the LTCUP there were some signals of such practices raised which required some attention.

Policy Implications

The achievement of policy coherence is crucial to ensure donors accept the need to bring other policies in line with development goals

(Hunt & Morton, 2004). Central government departments need to be involved in aid policy making, implementation, monitoring, and evaluation. In Fiji in particular this means the National Planning Office and the Ministry of Finance. Coxon (2003) believes that a consultative process needs to be established to ensure the participation of all groups within the society, particularly those most affected by policy decisions. The World Bank (1998) also affirmed that development assistance is more about supporting good institutions and policies than providing capital. Pasteur and Scot-Villiers (2006) argued that at the end of the day, it is the commitment to reducing the aid governance gap that will lead to appropriate aid policy changes on which better decisions for effective action will take place. Projects perform better when based on clear, strong policies (Collier and Dollar, 2001; Greeley, 2007; World Bank, 2001). To ensure effective and efficient aid implementation, there is a need for continuing efforts to be made to achieve greater collaboration between donor communities and multilateral organisations (Narayan, Chambers, Shah and Petesch, 2000). All parties need to adhere to their commitments and give their stamps of approval to aid policies which contribute to the development of quality aid delivery (Rosser, 2007).

Both developed and developing countries that agreed to the global agenda, as evident in the Paris Declaration and the MDGs, were serious but the nature of this commitment is not widely known. There is need for the advocates of the consensus to generate more public awareness with their national governments to make sure the MDGs can be achieved and benefit from the profile they deserve. Greater policy alignment is required to ensure that harmonisation is enhanced. This will reduce the duplication of assistance efforts and encourage joint donor/recipient formulation of country assistance

programmes. There is a need for more publicity through regular donor and development assistance recipient meetings (Kelep-Malpo, 2005). The policies and conditions of development cooperation should be clarified to promote adherence, encourage ratification, and strengthen advocacy of consensus through political will (Dorovolomo, et. al, 2008). This global consensus could be promoted nationally through the implementation of the recommendations which follow:

Fostering effective leadership

The very idea of international aid and its ethos of 'helping people to help themselves', suggests the notion of leadership which is essential to project success (Caar, et. al., 1998:67). Therefore development and engendering of effective leadership skills is important and needs to be fostered by leaders as it has become highly fashionable (Nayacakalou, 1975; Sanga & Walker, 2005). This reflects increasing emphasis on inspiring people and encouraging their participation, over more dictatorial or bureaucratic approaches often associated with management (Knights and Willmott, 2007). According to Friedman, (2000) organisation cultures really change from the top down. If there is commitment to this principle then guidance can be provided by existing leaders to sustain the process once the project ends (Pascoe, 2004). There is a need for visionary leaders who can make a difference. To legitimise their role and be accepted as agents of change in any aid initiative, such leaders have to be dynamic and be seen to be out in front (Manor, 2007b). In development projects, people with good management skills are required, as they were in the FATEP, BEMTUP, and the LTCUP initiatives. In Fiji if institutional development is to proceed, personnel need to develop the negotiating skills to openly liaise with the MOF and other funding agencies. There is a need for greater capacity among senior officials to manage and to

sustain projects. According to Malphurs (1996) the strength of leaders is as important and as firm as the skills required of a subordinate of any aid initiative. Recognition of the role of support staff is equally important because they play a critical role in seeing that things are done (Massell, 1998; Schuster, et.al, 1998). Leadership often boils down to one basic question, namely, what degree of worker participation is appropriate? In the aid project like the LTCUP, it ranges from minimal consultation to local people having full control over key decisions at the planning, construction implementation and evaluation stage as discussed below.

Planning

Sound planning is crucial to any integrated project (Gallus, 2004; Singer, 1965). All elements need to be in place. The planning stage of the LTCUP showed that it was biased toward the aid donors rather than the aid recipients particularly those who were to benefit from the initiative. Although some locals were involved in the planning stage, their engagement was not critical enough to address some of the culturally sensitive needs of the LTC community. Similar experience was noticed in the curriculum course design, where the basic planning did not avoid the dysfunctional outcomes in the current LTCUP diploma curriculum and the Fiji National Curriculum Framework. However it is assumed that further improvement will be implemented following a planned review of the courses' accreditation.

Programming approaches and aid delivery

A shift away from the traditional three to five year project approach to a more flexible programme approach is also indicated to be a better arrangement as experienced in the FESP initiative. The project approach tends to treat the design documents as blueprints rather

than working documents. This allows for some marginal changes to be made from year to year but does not permit the major changes that are sometimes indicated. In contrast, a programme approach often uses a rolling annual plan and a budget framework which greatly increases flexibility. As a continuum, the project approach is at one end and the Sector Wide Approach (SWAp) is at the other. The SWAp approach affords more flexibility, because donor agencies tend to put money into the partner agencies' own budget process across a whole sector such as education. Unfortunately the GOF has not adopted such aid delivery model but entertains the bilateral arrangements where the national government scrutinizes and determines all foreign aid.

Proper analysis of the benefits of a programme approach is best done through a "contribution analysis" which not only allows the achievements to appear in the log frame's outputs and outcomes, but also considers whether they have made any contribution to the partner agency's strategic objective outcomes (Roche & Kelly, 2003). In short, donors should not focus on achievements only in relation to the log frame, but rather whether they have made a difference to the recipient partners.

Project monitoring and review

When a project document is reviewed for sustainability it is very important to carefully examine the provision made for physical structures and resources. The government's commitments need to be reviewed to see if they address the challenge of recurrent costs. The inclusion of more local consultant inputs will add strength to local voices and develop a better appreciation of available skills. This capacity, which up to now has been minimal, becomes especially

important when Technical Advisory Groups (TAGs) are set up to monitor and evaluate processes. The inclusion of local consultants is essential. Not only do they have the necessary skills, they are competent in other ways. Their local knowledge is invaluable and places them in a position where they can contribute more than their expatriate counterparts. Right from the start, the voices of all stakeholders (staff members and students) need to be more prominent in the decision-making process and not just a selected few. It was obvious in the TAG exercise was the lack of representation of the aid beneficiaries or aid recipient. Cracknell, (2000), believe that the major concern now is to find ways of measuring aid impact more effectively where evaluators (TAG) need to realise that there is no way of measuring the impact of development aid on people without their being closely involved in the whole process. It is through 'participatory evaluation' lenses that evaluators have to try and see things from the viewpoint of the aid recipients.

Partnerships

As part of a growing interest in getting institutions to work together towards a true partnership, there is also a need to know if there is a possibility to form strong cross-party commitments to a set of common objectives: a partnership approach might be formed to achieve these goals. Thus, the developing country is the necessary starting point for organising co-operative efforts, through relationships and mechanisms that reflect the particular local circumstances. For example, civil society and local institutions often have an indispensable role to play in any development initiative (Greeley, 2007). To ensure greater partnership and sustainability, local institutions need to be involved in the early days of any undertaking. When engaging in any bilateral agreement, stakeholders

need to be committed to assure the project sustainability. In projects focused on education, local consultants need to be engaged by the project. In the Pacific context, the consultants need to forge good working relationships with regional institutions like University of the South Pacific (USP) because at the end of the project tenure, institutions like USP will be available to pick up the work and use the results as benchmarks for future sustainability and accreditation of courses. During the LTCUP initiative there was minimal involvement of USP in the implementation phase although it was mentioned in the planning stage of the project. Projects in the region will not be sustainable if the relevant stakeholders are not included in the Project design and consultation phase. According to Greeley (2007), local partners in civil society should espouse exclusivity to maintain the ownership that is needed to maximise aid effectiveness. Innovative approaches need to be recognised in identifying the strengths and consequences of the initiative at the institutional and organisational levels (UNESCO, 2000).

Capacity Building

Engaging local governments and putting them in the driver's seat of development processes requires that efforts be made to include them. The results achieved by building local capacities to undertake sound political, economic, and social policies can be well rewarded. As underlined by the World Bank (1998), institutional capacity to manage and coordinate aid is often a missing condition for country-led partnership. Achieving ownership and building capacity go hand-in-hand and should be approached simultaneously as mutually reinforcing processes. According to the UNDP (2000), the concept of capacity building in asserting the demand for strengthening the key governance of institutions is a high priority. The term embraces many

activities, from establishing a transparent legal framework to developing local entrepreneurship as shown in figure 11 below.

Figure 11 – Capacity Diagram

(Adapted UNDP, 2000, p. 19.)

The demand for strengthening the capacity of key governance institutions is high. The term embraces many activities, from establishing transparent legal framework to developing local entrepreneurship. More generally, the combination of partnership and capacity building, while carrying the potential for tension, lies at the heart of efforts to promote sustainability (Schoeffel, 1985).

Localisation and Ownership

Under the Paris Declaration, development partner assistance and projects should be locally owned, as well as aligned with national policies, plans, and programmes. There is a need for greater awareness for ownership at a broader community level of public ownership. Ownership of programmes and projects by national governments is increasingly recognised as paramount to the success of any intervention. Evaluation findings show a strong correlation between the level of ownership and the performance of a project (UNDP, 2000; Buchan, 2003). Increased local support due to buy-in

and ownership by the national government is one of the attributes of enhanced project sustainability and achievement of immediate objectives.

The fundamental shift of attitude through the involvement of locals can not be over-emphasised. According to Norgaard (1994), and CIDA (2004), locals need to take responsibility for the destiny of their development initiatives. It requires building the capacity of state institutions and changing public service culture through an attitudinal shift (Knights and Willmott, 2007). As locals we have to take care of our own issues and solve our own problems. The need for greater localisation of aid effectiveness does not only require involvement in implementation but to have the capacity to sustain quality aid delivery. We locals need to contextualise and localise aid effectiveness principles through critical analysis, and review goals adding new ones without blindly accepting other peoples' aid principles. To make the most of potential development initiatives, we must insist on participatory and consultative processes that give local citizens opportunities and influence overall programme design and implementation (Caballero, 2004; Manor, 2007a).

However, these participatory and consultative approaches should complement and enrich efforts to strengthen national capacities for sustainable development. As a basic principle, locally-owned country development strategies and targets should emerge from an open and collaborative dialogue by local authorities with civil society and with external partners, about their shared objectives and their respective contributions to the common enterprise (Curtin, 2004; Cracknell, 2005). Each donor's programmes and activities should then operate within the framework of a locally-owned strategy in ways that respect and encourage strong local commitment, participation, capacity

development, and ownership (Chicken, 1994; Cheab, 2004). While the particular elements of specific partnerships will vary considerably, it is possible to suggest areas in which undertakings might be considered by partners as part of their shared commitment to objectives. Although the design and the delivery of the project can guide the process, local factors are most decisive in determining project outcomes (Pascoe, 2004).

To give substance to the underpinning belief in local ownership and partnership, we must use channels and methods of co-operation that do not undermine those values. Acceptance of the partnership model, with greater clarity of the roles of partners, is one of the most positive changes we are proposing in the framework for development co-operation Crocker (2000). In a partnership, development co-operation should not attempt to do things *for* developing countries and their people, but rather *with* them. It must be seen as a collaborative effort to help them increase their capacities to do things for themselves. According to Nyangu (2004) here is a need to develop and implement a “work with” and not “talk at” attitude to project delivery.

Aid Allocation

With the increasing number of bilateral aid arrangements, donors now need to identify alternative approaches, such as policy dialogue, humanitarian assistance, and working through civil society organisations and NGOs or local government targeted low income countries (Norgaard, 1994). The MOE needs to be a front runner in the range and flexibility of educational aid in Fiji. This requires the GOF to have in place a very constructive strategic development plan where it can propose to donor agencies its development needs. In

having a home grown development plan, it will minimise 'crowding' by donor agencies for lee-ways to impose their different agenda and ways of working on local capacities and contexts that are not necessarily conducive or real (Niroa, 2005) .

The Pacific Ministers of Education Forum can be utilised to mediate to secure educational aid policies through the employment of local and regional experts as consultants. However the capacity building of human resources should be strengthened to allow local officials to have the capacity facilitate confidently in the different stages of any project phases (Maka, 2005; Irvin, et.al 2006; Hughes, 2007). The strengthening of the locals will allow them to be employed as consultants which in the past have been dominated by overseas consultants. This would allow for greater local participation and more direct benefit in the retention of aid dollars by the recipient partners (Palimi et.al, 2008). Currently, as illustrated by the case study, most salary and consultant fees are repatriated to donor countries as the consultants are mostly expatriates.

To allow for equal and fair distribution of development opportunities, aid allocation need to be directed to areas where they are most needed to make a difference in the lives and welfare of the local people.

Democracy

In the 1990s the promotion of good government and democratisation and their relationship to political conditionality have come to be listed on the agendas of international aid agencies (Burnell, 2004a). As a result, democracy has been mentioned by donors as an important precondition for aid to be effective, and there is at least some evidence that donors have acted accordingly by giving more aid to democratic

government (Gates and Hoeffler, 2004; Burnell, 2004b). Political instability and capacity gaps have escalated recently and have resulted in a situation where the best of government policies and development partner funded projects cannot be properly implemented. McGillivray et.al, (2006) argued that political instability and aid effectiveness has been analysed by further augmenting the aid growth with an index of political instability. The index is the weighted sum of coup and regime changes and is intended to measure instability of political elites or institutions similar to the Fiji experience. Donors have had major concerns about standards of governance, transparency, and accountability that have, in the past, led to the withdrawal of development partners or a reduction in development partner assistance (Larmour, 1997).

However this is not to ignore that donors do pursue their own economic and political interests when deciding on aid (Alesina & Dollar 2000; Berthélemy 2006). Recipient countries need to redress their domestic governance to attract donor governments that are keen to support any initiative with the “value for money” and feasible returns on investment through development assistance. Delors (1996) argued that education development can not be achieved to give everyone the means of playing an informed and active part as a citizen except within the framework of democratic societies. Political relations between the Fiji government and major development partners, particularly Australia, New Zealand and the World Bank, have sometimes been triggered with lack of trust on both sides. Thus it is hypothesised that aid will have a greater impact on growth in countries that have embraced a greater the degree of democracy (McGillivray, 2000).

Conclusion

It has been stressed in this research that each developing country and its people are ultimately responsible for their own development. Thus, the developing country is the necessary starting point for organising co-operation efforts, through relationships and mechanisms that reflect the particular local circumstances. Some developing countries will need special help in building the necessary capacities. Development co-operation at the regional level and along sectoral lines is also important. However, these approaches should complement and enrich efforts to strengthen national capacities for sustainable development. As a basic principle, locally-owned country development strategies and targets should emerge from an open and collaborative dialogue by local authorities with civil society and with external partners, about their shared objectives and their respective contributions to the common enterprise. Each donor's programmes and activities should then operate within the framework of that locally-owned strategy in ways that respect and encourage strong local commitment, participation, capacity development, and ownership. While the particular elements of partnerships will vary considerably, it is possible to suggest areas in which undertakings might be considered by the partners as their commitments to shared objectives. As illustrated by LTCUP and FATEP, the locals engagement in all aspects of the project phases is crucial for the assurance of the sustainability of the initiative.

Much work remains to be done and reviewed by informed, critical research. An in-depth study of the pedagogical impact and changes in the classrooms which have occurred as a consequence of the curriculum upgrade promoted by the LTCUP would be just one of them.

If aid effectiveness is to be measured by the achievement of MDG targets then the greater part of the international aid vote should clearly be invested to achieve this result. However, the issue of the amount of money made available is not only the way to achieve MDG targets. Are the aid donors seriously willing to re-examine their aid policy inherited from colonial predecessors? Or will change be the watchword? The few indications we have so far, from campaign statements and the Paris Declaration of Aid Effectiveness point to change. Yet the critical test will be in practice. Can donors meet the standards and guidelines laid down in Paris? Can true partnership be formed? The case of Fiji is particularly challenging. Clearly, traditional donors are in no mood to extend aid when political issues command such a high profile. Will other donors enter into a significant aid relationship?

Although the guidelines for aid effectiveness have been agreed to and signed off they have yet to become fully operational. The developed world needs to improve the quality of overseas development assistance not only by providing more money to reduce poverty, promote equality, increase growth, build capacity, and accelerate the achievement of the MDGs (OECD, 2000): it is the way aid is managed that provides the greater challenge. I do not question the principle that aid should focus on poverty eradication, targeting firstly key social services such as health, education, water, and sanitation, while ensuring that cross-sectoral issues such as gender, human rights, and environmental preservation are taken into account. The question I have addressed is whether the delivery of the aid is working effectively. It is not enough to simply speak about procedures; based on the examples of LCTUP, FATEP, and BEMTUP; I firmly believe that

more attention to these matters would result in better development outcomes for all concerned.

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APPENDICES

APPENDICES

Appendix I Pacific Principles of Aid Effectiveness & Supplementary Notes

PACIFIC ISLANDS FORUM SECRETARIAT “PACIFIC AID EFFECTIVENESS PRINCIPLES”

Preamble

These principles derive from the Paris Declaration of Aid Effectiveness (2005). They have been workshopped and consulted upon widely across the Pacific region, and are designed to fit the Pacific context. The Pacific Aid Principles, like the original Paris declaration, include actions and approaches for both countries and development partners (donors). References to the relevant sections in the Paris declaration, and related monitoring indicators, have been included.

Principle 1: Country leadership and ownership of development through an accountable and transparent national development planning and financial management system/mechanism which is adequately resourced from the national budget – including longer term operation and maintenance of donor sponsored development.

(Paris Declaration Section 14, 19; Indicator 1, 2)

Principle 2: Multi-year commitments by development partners and countries aligned nationally identified priorities as articulated in national sustainable development strategies, or the like, with agreement on performance indicators and monitoring and evaluation mechanisms.

(Paris Declaration Section 16, 26; Indicator 3, 5, 7)

Principle 3: Greater Pacific ownership of regional development, Development Partners’ Pacific Regional Strategies designed and formulated with the Pacific Plan and other Regional Policies as their cornerstone.

(Paris Declaration 14, 15; Indicator 1)

Principle 4: Pacific Development Partners and countries pursue a coordinated approach in the delivery of assistance. Encouraging harmonization will be a priority for both.

(Paris Declaration 32-42; Indicators 9, 10)

Principle 5: Strengthen institutional mechanisms and capacity in countries to enable increased use of local systems by development partners.

(Paris Declaration 17, 21, 22-24, 31; Indicator 4, 6, 8)

Principle 6: (i) Provision of technical assistant (TA) including in aid coordination/management, in such a way that ensures that capacity is built with tangible benefits to the country to support national ownership. Provision of an appropriate level of counterpart resources through established procedures and mechanism.

(ii) Short term TA, that address local skills gaps to conduct studies, are culturally sensitive

(Paris Declaration 22-24; Indicator 4)

Principle 7: Use of agreed monitoring and evaluation framework that will ensure joint assessments of the implementation of agreed commitments on aid effectiveness.

(Paris Declaration 43-46; Indicator 11)

These principles are not legally binding. The European Union has expressed reservations to the principle

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Appendix II Paris Declaration of Aid Effectiveness

The Five Principles of Aid Effectiveness

Principle 1 Ownership

Partner countries exercise effective leadership over their development policies, and strategies and co-ordinate development actions
Development countries will exercise effective leadership over their development policies, strategies and co-ordination development efforts. Donors' are responsible for supporting and enabling developing countries ownership by respecting their policies and helping strengthening their capacity to implement them (paragraph 14 and 15 of the Paris Declaration).

Principle 2 Alignment

Donors base their overall support on partner countries' national development strategies, institutions and procedures.
Donors will base their overall support on partner countries' national development strategies, institutions and procedures. For example, this means that donor will draw conditions wherever possible from a devolving country government's development strategy, instead of imposing multiple conditions based on other agendas (para.16).

Principle 3 Harmonisation

Donors actions are more harmonised, transparent and collectively effective.
Donors aim to be more harmonised, collectively effective and less burdensome especially on the countries, such as fragile states, which have weak administration capacities. This means, for instance, establishing common arrangements at country level for planning, funding and implementing development programmes (para. 32).

Principle 4	Managing for Results
<p>Managing resources and improving decision-making for results. Both donors and partner countries will manage resources and improve decision-making for results. Donors should fully support developing countries efforts in implementing performance assessment frameworks that measures progress against key elements of national development strategies (para. 43-46).</p>	
Principle 5	Mutual Accountability
<p>Donors and partners are accountable for development results. Donors and developing countries pledge that they will hold each other mutually accountable for development results as outlined in the aid effectiveness pyramid.</p>	

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Appendix III Paris Declaration Indicators

OWNERSHIP		TARGET FOR 2010
1	<i>Partners have operational development strategies</i> – Number of countries with national development strategies (including PRSs) that have clear strategic priorities linked to a medium term expenditure framework and reflected in annual budgets.	At least 75% of partner countries have operational development strategies
ALIGNMENT		TARGETS FOR 2010
2	<i>Reliable country systems</i> – Number of partner countries that have procurement and public financial management systems that either (a) adhere to broadly accepted good policies or (b) have a reform program in place to achieve this	<p>(a) Public financial management – Half of partner countries move up at least one measure (i.e., 0.5 points) on the PFM/CPIA (Country Policy and Institutional Assessment) scale of performance.</p> <p>(b) Procurement – One-third of partner countries move up at least one measure (i.e., from D to C, C to B, or B to A) on the four-point scale used to assess performance for this indicator.</p>
3	<i>Aid flows are aligned on national priorities</i> – percent of aid flow to government sector is reported on partnerships' national budgets.	Halve the gap – halve the proportion of aid flows to government sector not reported on government's budget(s) (with at least 85% reported on budget).
4	<i>Strengthen capacity by co-ordinated support</i> – percent of donor capacity – development support provided through co-ordinated programmes consistent with partners' national development strategies.	50% of technical co-operation flows are implemented through co-ordinated programmes consistent with national development strategies.
5a	<i>Use of country public financial management systems</i> - percent of donors and of aid flows that use public financial management systems in partner countries which either (a) adhere to broadly accepted good practices or (b) have a reform programme in place to achieve these.	PERCENT OF DONOR
		Score* Target
		5+ All donors use partner countries' PFM systems.
		3.5 to 4.5 90% of donors use partner countries' PFM systems.
		PERCENT OF AID FLOWS
		Score* Target
		5+ A two-thirds reduction in the % of aid to the public sector not using partner countries' PFM systems.
		3.5 to 4.5 A one-third reduction in the % of aid to the public sector not using partner countries' PFM systems.
		PERCENT OF DONOR
		Score* Target

5b	<i>Use of country procurement systems</i> – Percentage of donors and of aid flows that use partner country procurement systems which either (a) adhere to broadly accepted good practices or (b) have a reform program in place to achieve these.	A	All donors use partners countries’ procurement systems
		B	90% of donors use partners countries’ procurement systems
		PERCENT OF AID FLOWS	
		Score*	Target
		A	A two-thirds reduction in the % of aid to the public sector not using partner countries’ procurement systems.
		B	A one-third reduction in the % of aid to the public sector not using partner countries’ procurement systems.
6	<i>Strengthen capacity by parallel implementation structures</i> – Number of parallel project implementation units (PIUs) per country.	Reduce by two-thirds the stock of parallel projects implementation units (PIUs).	
7	<i>Aid is more predictable</i> – Percent of aid disbursements released according to agreed schedules in annual or multi-year frameworks.	Halve the gap – halve the proportion of aid not disbursed within the fiscal year to which it was scheduled.	
8	<i>Aid is untied</i> – percent of bilateral aid that is untied.	Continued progress over time	
HARMONISATION		TARGETS FOR 2010	
9	<i>Use of common arrangements or procedures</i> – percent of aid provided as programme-based approaches.	66% of aid flows are provided in the context programme-based approaches	
10	<i>Encourage shared analysis</i> – percent of (a) filled missions and/or (b) country analytic work, including diagnostic reviews that are joint.	(a) 40% of donor mission to the field are joint	
		(b) 66% of country analytic work is joint.	
MANAGING FOR RESULTS		TARGET FOR 2010	
11	<i>Results-oriented frameworks</i> – number of countries with transparent and monitorable performance assessment frameworks to assess progress against (a) the national development strategies and (b) sector programmes	Reduce the gap by one-third – Reduce the proportion of countries without transparent and monitorable performance assessment frameworks by one-third.	
MUTUAL ACCOUNTABILITY		TARGET FOR 2010	
12	<i>Mutual accountability</i> – Number of partner countries that undertake mutual assessment of progress in implementing agreed commitments on id effectiveness including those in this Declaration	All partner countries have mutual assessment reviews in place.	

Important Note: In accordance with paragraph 9 of the Declaration, the partnership of donors and partner countries hosted by the DAC (Working Party on Aid Effectiveness) comprising OECD/DAC members, partner countries and multi-lateral institutions, met twice, on 30/31 May 2005 and on 7-8 July 2005 to adopt, and review where appropriate the targets for the twelve Indicators of Progress. At this meeting an agreement was reached on the target presented under Section 3 of the present Declaration. These agreements is subject to reservations by one donor on (a)

the methodology for assessing the quality of locally-managed procurement systems (relating to targets 2b and 5b) and (b) the acceptable quality of public financial management programmes (relating to target 5a.ii). Further discussions are underway to address these issues. The targets, including the reservations have been notified to the chair of the High-level Plenary Meeting of the 59th General Assembly of the United Nations in a letter of 9 September 2005 by Mr. Richard Manning, Chair of the OECD Development Assistance Committee (DAC).

***Note on Indicator 5:** Scores for Indicator 5 are determined by the methodology used to measure quality of procurement and public financial management systems under Indicator 2 above.

APPENDICES

Appendix IV

Semi structured Interview Schedules

The principal research questions:

- I. To what extent did the two previous AusAID programmes and management practices arise out of donor conditions, succeed in their stated aims, and generate unintended consequences?*
- II. What should be the critical indicators or yardsticks for measurement of the effectiveness of educational aid delivery in teacher education in Fiji?*
- III. What conceptual framework for aid delivery process can be implemented to promote and strengthen the effective delivery mechanisms in Fiji and the Pacific Island Countries?*

The objectives of the research will be addressed by a series of questions:

To evaluate the two AusAID funded projects:

1. Fiji –Australia Teacher Education Project (FATEP) at the Fiji College of Advance Education (FCAE 1992 - 1995).
2. Lautoka Teachers College Upgrading Project (LTCUP) at the Lautoka Teachers College (LTC – 2002-2006) had a European Union component which was responsible for the capital project – (Buildings at LTC – 2002-2006).

- What were the programmes and management practices employed in the FATEP and LTCUP initiatives?
- To what extent did they arise out of donor conditions? To what extent have the interests and the needs of both the donors and the recipients been addressed?
- Have the FATEP and LTCUP initiatives succeeded in their stated aims?
- What were the logical frameworks of the FATEP and LTCUP initiatives? How was each project's logical framework interpreted to achieve the goals and objectives of the project?
- To what extent have the FATEP and LTCUP initiatives generated unintended consequences?
- Identify the kinds of arrangements governments have put in place to lead the country-level processes and execute the necessary activities related to realizing the commitments and agreements made in Paris and the benchmarks on aid effectiveness set by the OECD.
- What aid policy guidelines and actionable steps need to be put in place to follow up activities in the implementation and monitoring phases of the projects?
- In comparing the two initiatives, had lessons been learned from the earlier (FATEP) that were applied to the later (LTCUP) initiative? How can the lessons used from FATEP be used to improve future aid delivery to teacher education?
- Overall, what are the main lessons that can be learnt about the delivery of educational aid projects in Fiji?

iv. To establish measuring tools or yardsticks for measuring the effectiveness of educational aid delivery.

- What measures/indicators have been put forward internationally/regionally to be used in determining the effectiveness of aid delivery?
 - How appropriate are these international measures/indicators for the local Fiji aid situation?
 - What yardsticks could be used to address the specific lessons learnt from the system analysis of the FATEP project?
- v. To incorporate the yardsticks into a conceptual framework and holistic model to ensure a shared balance of power and to strengthen mutual capacity building where donors genuinely address the needs of the recipient countries.
- How should the yardsticks be integrated into a conceptual framework to guide the effective delivery of future teacher education aid projects in Fiji?
 - What model should be used to guide the delivery of aid in general within Fiji and the Pacific region?
- vi. To establish an appropriate ‘donor interest and recipient need’ model to further strengthen a platform for mutual capacity building where the donor genuinely addresses the needs of the recipient countries.
- Were the ‘donor-recipient’ agreement on essential requirements and assumptions genuinely considered?
 - How were the agreed terms of reference for feasibility study process addressed in the selection and the design phase?

Semi structured Interview Schedule for PRA Work

The involvement of the project selection and design of stakeholders

Who determines the priority areas for aid in education?

Were the people involved and consulted during the selection and designing of the project logical framework?

How were they involved?

How many consultation meetings if any were held?

Were people asked to comment on the project?

Who were involved in the consultation?

What sort of policy dialogue if any was carried out?

Who were involved in the dialogue?

Who are the major aid donor agencies in education?

Why was Lautoka Teachers College targeted to receive the aid?

How will Lautoka Teachers College benefit from the upgrading project?

What are the objectives of AusAID in regards to educational aid?

What are the objectives of European Union towards educational aid?

Project implementation

How was the project conceived?

What are the objectives of Ministry of Education?

Where did the idea of the project initiate from?

What were the objectives of the project?

Was the 'logical framework' of the project related to the implementation process in relation to the key elements of the projects?

How were the aid activities managed?

Were the socio-economic assessment conducted?

Were there any indicators of difficulties envisaged when in the initial stage of the project planning?

Was there a back up or an alternative plan to be adopted if this particular arrangement did not work?

How were the issues of human capacity building to be achieved through the project? Was there any institutional building component to support the organisational capacity?

How was the project monitored?

Was there any evidence of adaptive management? Explain.

Were traditional issues and knowledge considered?

What are some of the challenges and constraints of aid in education?

Appropriate human resource development and institution building

Was there any assessment of the current capacity?

Was there any assessment of the existing institutions?

Were there training for skill development before the project commenced?

How was the content of the training determined?

Was there any training of the trainers programme?

Where were the consultants from?

What were the institutional arrangement set up for the project?

Was there an arrangement for reporting procedures on matters related to the project? Were you visited by the officials of the project when the project was operational?

Integration with other sectoral activities

Which government department was responsible for the project?

Were there other government and non government officials involved at any stage of the project?

How was the project related to other educational development projects?

Was assistance of any kind offered because of the project?

Was the project ever discussed in any local government of regional/provincial level? Was there any consideration of impacts (economic or otherwise) on other sectors? Were there on-going interactions with the project leaders?

Appropriate choice of technologies (software)

Who decided on the introduction of the technology?

Was the technology on offer from some one?

Was the technology tested out before it was offered for use?

Were there some shortcomings or defects in the technology?

Were people asked for their technological preferences?

Was there any assessment of the peoples' technology know how level?

How were the staff and students' ability to manage and use the technology worked out?

What were some of the social changes resulting from the project?

Do staff and students prefer the condition of the institution before of after the project?

What are some of the things the project allowed and other thing it does not allow the staff and students to have access to?

Consideration for socio-cultural dimension

How was this place chosen for the project?

Who made the decision for the involvement in the project?

Were the staff and students consulted if they wanted to be involved in the project implementation?

What was the nature of the project? How was community life affected?

Were stakeholders forewarned of what they can and can not do?

What were some of the economic changes resulting from the projects?

Do staff and students prefer the conditions of life and work/study environment before, during or after the project?

What are some of the things that the project allowed the staff and students to have? What are some of the thing the project did not allow the staff and students to have?

Statistical information based on project management

What management measures were used for the project?

Was statistics used in project related meetings?

Did the consultants and stakeholders keep figures related to the project?

How was the statistics obtained?

How was the statistics used?

Political commitment/ will

Was the project important for political reasons? Why?/How?

Was there any pressure to change the way the project was designed and operated? Who was responsible for providing management advice?

Did the advice have any bearing on the project outcomes?

How was the MOE involved in the assurance of the project sustainability?

The central notion of sustainability

Were the goals clear and realistic?

Did the project design correspond to the managerial and technical capacity of recipient?

Were the choices of technologies appropriate to the economic social and educational conditions of the recipients?

Were there adequate maintenance and support systems as well as capacity to manage the project once external assistance was terminated?

Does the recipient country have the ability to provide adequate public financing for self supporting?

The revised Curriculum

What process of consultation (if any) was used in the revision of the new curriculum design?

Who participated in the design?

How was the curriculum aligned to the Education Commission?

Was the revised curriculum (pedagogies) related of the Strategic Development Plan of Fiji?

If yes, how was this translated in the curriculum (pedagogies)?

Improvements for desired outcomes

If there were some changes required, which area or processes needs to be addressed to improve future effective educational aid delivery in Fiji?

In addition, the study will use several sources of secondary data as documentary sources (official and unofficial, bilateral and multilateral). Library research (books, journals, policy documents, country reports, project reports, and statistical data of aid in Fiji) will be an ongoing process in conjunction as the study proceeds. Field study and observation will be carried out at various research study venues. Government reports will reflect the background of the aid initiatives and the Terms of Reference (TOR).

International Aid in Fiji

How does the funding mechanism operate?

What delivery approaches are used by the donor agencies (AusAID)?

What policy frameworks of operation do you have?

What are some of the organisational factors which are critical for enhancing and sustaining effectiveness of aid delivery (implementation)?

What are some of the organisational factors which are critical for enhancing and sustaining effectiveness of aid delivery (implementation) at the Teachers Colleges?

How can aid best improve the Fiji education system through its delivery, impact, and sustainability for national development?

APPENDICES

Appendix V

Ethical Approval

Phone 0-4-463 5676
Fax 0-4-463 5209
Email Allison.kirkman@vuw.ac.nz

MEMORANDUM

TO	Donasiano K Ruru
COPY TO	Professor Vijay Naidu, Supervisor
FROM	Dr Allison Kirkman, Convener, Human Ethics Committee
DATE	16 December 2006
PAGES	1
SUBJECT	Ethics Approval: No 139/2006, Strengthening effectiveness of aid delivery in Teacher Education: A Fiji case study.

Thank you for your application for ethical approval, which has now been considered by the Standing Committee of the Human Ethics Committee.

Your application has been approved from the above date and this approval continues until 30 July 2007. If your data collection is not completed by this date you should apply to the Human Ethics Committee for an extension to this approval.

Best wishes with the research.

A handwritten signature in black ink, appearing to read "Allison Kirkman".

Allison Kirkman
Convener

APPENDICES

Appendix VI Ministry of Education Approval

MINISTRY OF EDUCATION

EDUCATING THE CHILD HOLISTICALLY FOR A PEACEFUL
AND PROSPEROUS FIJI

Marela House, 19 Thurston Street, Suva, Fiji Islands
Private Mail Bag, Government Buildings, Suva

Ph: (679) 3314477 Fax: (679) 3303511

Our Reference:

Your Reference:

Date:

17.10.06

Mr. Donasio Ruru,
Victoria University of Wellington,
Wellington.

Dear Sir,

Re: Research Permit Approval.

We acknowledge receipt of your application for a research permit dated 08th instant.

I am pleased to inform you that you have been given permission to undertake your research titled **"Aid Effectiveness in Educational Aid with Respect to Teacher Training Institutions in Fiji."**

This permit gives you approval to access and gather data from the Fiji College of Advanced Education and Lautoka Teachers College and also interview teachers. Please inform the Heads of the institutions in advance in regards to your study work.

As a condition for all research permits that confidentiality should be maintained at all times and the final copy of the results should be forwarded to us when it is ready. This Ministry reserves the right to publish or edit a summary of it.

We wish you well in your research studies.

Joji Qaranyalu [Mr]
for **Chief Executive Officer [Education]**

cc DSPRD
A/PEO [R&D]
Principals [LTC&FCAE]
TPF: 43412

APPENDICES

Appendix VII Supervisors Support Letter

8 January, 2007

To whom it may concern,

I am writing to introduce to you Mr Dona Ruru and to request your kind assistance to him.

Dona, a lecturer at the Lautoka Teachers' College (on leave) is a PhD student in Development Studies at the Victoria University of Wellington, New Zealand. He will be researching the topic of 'Aid Effectiveness in Educational Aid with respect to teacher training institutions in Fiji' over the next 6 months beginning in January.

Your assistance to him in his research work will contribute to his efforts at identifying how education aid has been used and how it can be utilised to bring greater benefits to Government, students, staff of teacher training institutions and the wider community.

It is hoped that Dona' study will increase our understanding of educational aid and its contribution to national development.

Yours faithfully

A handwritten signature in blue ink, appearing to read "Vijay Naidu".

Professor Vijay Naidu

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Institute of Geography
School of Geography, Environment and Earth Sciences
Victoria University
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Wellington
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Appendix VIII Technical Advisors Salary Allocation Summary

LTCUP Cost Summary													
	2003			2004			2005			2006			TOTAL
	Jul - Sept	Oct - Dec		Jan - Mar	Apr - Jun	Jul - Sept	Oct - Dec	Jan - Mar	Apr - Jun	Jul - Sept	Oct - Dec	Jan - Mar	Apr - Jun
	Q1	Q2	Q3	Q4	Q5	Q6	Q7	Q8	Q9	Q10	Q11	Q12	
Personnel													
Long Term Advisers	0	0	0	0	69,825	69,825	0	0	0	0	0	0	139,650
Short Term Advisers	0	0	168,495	117,409	238,924	45,853	135,789	30,060	120,154	10,473	0	19,162	886,317
Locally Engaged Staff	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
SUBTOTAL	0	0	168,495	117,409	308,749	115,678	135,789	30,060	120,154	10,473	0	19,162	1,025,987
Project Activity Implementation													
A1 - Extraordinary In-Country Goods / Equipment Running Costs	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	0
A2 - Activity Implementation Adviser Costs	0	0	30,225	12,090	39,293	9,068	27,203	6,045	21,158	3,023	0	3,023	151,125
A3 - Activity Implementation Goods Costs	0	25,000	7,000	3,000	363,000	385,200	104,000	104,000	64,000	54,000	9,000	5,000	1,123,200
A4 - Services Procurement	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	0
A5 - Activity Training/Work Attachment Costs	0	0	0	22,500	68,800	149,600	110,100	27,600	27,600	13,800	0	0	420,000
A6 - Construction Costs	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	0
A7 - Other	800	4,300	19,254	40,454	21,454	39,954	15,254	34,254	15,254	39,754	8,754	22,254	261,740
SUBTOTAL	800	29,300	56,479	78,044	492,547	583,822	256,557	171,899	128,012	110,577	17,754	30,277	1,956,065
Program Activity Implementation Financing and Management Fee (20.90% of A3 - A7)	167	6,124	5,487	13,784	94,730	120,124	47,935	34,663	22,332	22,479	3,711	5,696	377,232
SUBTOTAL	167	6,124	5,487	13,784	94,730	120,124	47,935	34,663	22,332	22,479	3,711	5,696	377,232
QUARTERLY TOTAL COST	967	35,424	230,461	209,237	896,026	819,623	440,289	236,522	270,497	143,528	21,465	55,135	3,359,265
CUMULATIVE EXPENDITURE	967	36,391	266,852	476,089	1,372,115	2,191,738	2,632,018	2,868,640	3,139,137	3,282,665	3,304,130	3,359,265	3,359,265